

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

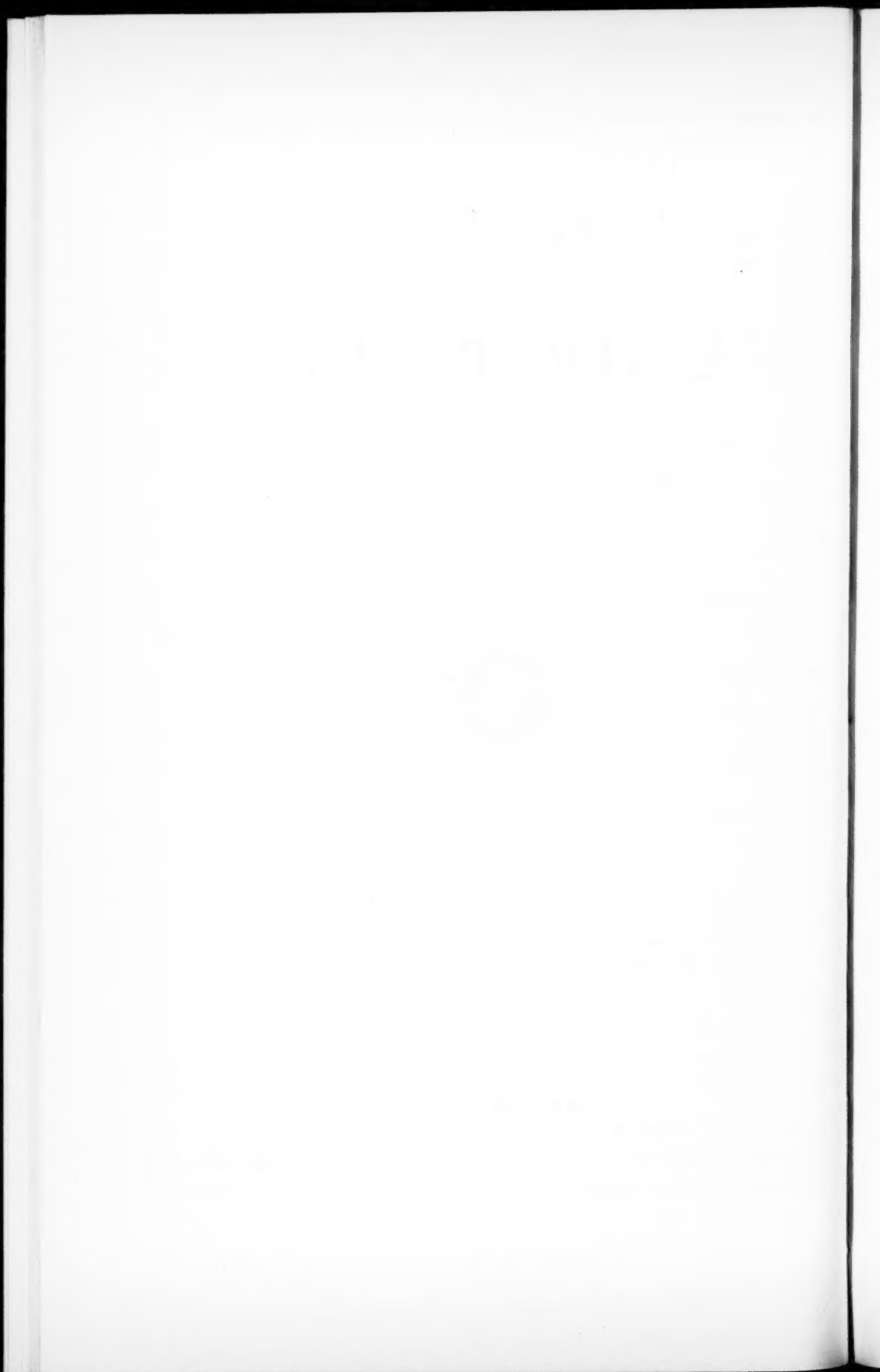
THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association *of* Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers



WINTER, 1959

VOLUME THIRTY-FOUR

NUMBER TWO



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THE ROLE OF THE SMALL COLLEGE IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY	<i>Edward M. Stout</i>	157
PARENTAL EXPECTATIONS AND ATTITUDES ABOUT COLLEGES	<i>John L. Holland</i>	164
THE ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROGRAM	<i>David A. Dudley</i>	171
AFRO-ASIAN EDUCATION	<i>Clara H. Koenig</i>	180
STUDIES ON THE FRESHMAN CLASS OF 1956 AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS	<i>Fred L. Kerr</i>	186
HOW ARE COLLEGES RATED?	<i>Robert W. McEwen</i>	200
FUTURE PROFESSORS, COMING UP!	<i>Patricia Kozacik</i>	205
SOME REFLECTIONS ON DEMOCRACY IN ADMINISTRATION	<i>Harold Furst</i>	208
EDITORIAL COMMENT		213
BOOK REVIEWS		215
IN THE JOURNALS		232
REPORTED TO US		237
CONSTITUTION OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS		247
PLACEMENT SERVICE		253

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PRESENT ENGINEERING
AND SCIENCE BUILDING
—CARNEGIE INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY

WINTER
1959

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

VOLUME 34
NUMBER 2

THE JOURNAL of the American
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The Role of the Small College in Contemporary Society

EDWARD M. STOUT

PROBABLY the most important problem facing the American people in the field of education during the coming two decades is that of the small liberal arts college. This problem is both serious and delicate. Serious, because profound interests, both material and spiritual are at stake; delicate, because there are involved special and almost unique questions of privilege and right.

It is appropriate to consider, first of all, some factors that add to the life and growth of the smaller college; secondly, which of those factors are found to be handicaps to its fuller enrichment; and, finally, those ideas that are suggested in a changing democratic city.

One of the first ideas that should be examined is the widespread belief that the smaller school has distinct advantages over the larger, more complex university. This idea is held so firmly that be it true or false, it lends a substantial element of strength to the plea of the small college. If this premise is untrue, it is impossible to say that its fallacy will soon be evident; for, in judging the evidence on both sides of the question, the number of points to be decided is so overwhelming that a precise answer is impossible to obtain.¹ How can it be said that it would have been better or worse should this student

¹ Ernest Havemann and Patricia S. West, *They Went to College*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1952, pp. 210-219.

or that student have gone to the larger university instead of the smaller college?²

It has also been submitted that the student in the smaller school has a greater scholastic advantage because of the closer, more personal intimacy he experiences with the members of the faculty. Now it is undoubtedly true that the student who knows his instructor on an intimate, friendly basis has a finer chance of gaining more satisfactory results than does the pupil who has little contact with his professor. But is this a true criticism of the larger university? Is it a fact that in the larger schools the student comes into less vital touch with his instructors?

Having observed this question over a number of years I am convinced that the student in the larger university not only comes into contact with a greater number of instructors, but also meets in the closest possible manner as many of this number as he would have touched in a smaller, less complex situation. But actually, this is beside the point, for the idea is not merely a question of close contact but one of receiving that stimulation which makes the student wish to become a scholar, to follow in the footsteps of these men or that man, who has so stirred him. It must also be observed that there are many instructors in both the large and the small college, close touch with whom would deaden rather than animate any thought of an intellectual life; and it is only just to say that the number of such people is as great, on a proportional basis, in the small as in the large.

Carrying the arguments further, the learner in the small college, it is argued, has a greater opportunity to develop a sense of responsibility; the number of students being small, each one stands out more clearly and receives greater acknowledgment, and, at the same time, he is able to take a greater part in the extracurricular activities of his environment. Statements to the effect that many college graduates claim they received more out of extracurricular activities than they did out of study is one of the most damning criticisms of higher education ever made. The implications made are, of course, ever widening, but in their essence mean that the course of studies was so weak and meaningless that it touched the student's needs less than did his fraternity or athletic participation. It should be kept in mind, however, that the urge to excel and the number of activities which present themselves to the student multiply much more rapidly than the proportionate increase in enrollment; and that these opportunities are

² *Ibid.*

often of a higher nature and generally of a more varied structure when found on the larger campus.

These ideas notwithstanding, the point to be remembered is this: the belief in the superior advantages of the small college has taken so strong a hold upon the imagination of Americans that, although it rests upon bases which are fancied or even sentimental, it will serve as a powerful factor in assisting to maintain and further the interests of the small against those of the large educational organization.

II

Another factor which has aided the smaller college is that feeling of devotion which has grasped the minds of many and which is cherished in most cases, simply because the college is small and weak; while the large school is conversely feared simply because it has grown to be powerful.

Yet another factor, and one which is probably the most potent of all, is the strong and vociferous army of supporters who band together in their love of the small college. Within this group of loyal and devoted faculty and alumni are some whose very life has been spent on the foundations of weak but struggling colleges. Life's energy so freely given should never be sacrificed in vain.

There come to mind too, the complete devotion and sacrifice that many give in the form of a living endowment, sometimes referred to as contributed service. Serving without pay—devoting their total energies to the student body and the entire structure of the Christian college—these are the true apostles of charity, and their devotion and zeal must never go unrecognized. Where there is love of *alma mater*, it is a true love, and the college graduate who has such a deep feeling for his spiritual mother will certainly not think less of her should she be sick or tottering. On the contrary, should she stand in need there are always a group of alumni and teachers who close ranks solidly behind her and generously pump life-giving fluids into her system. Such devotion cannot be bought—it can only be earned. It is a gift more precious than any material thing. It is the very essence of life for any college, and it is the guaranty that such an institution will probably continue to survive. It has been said that Rome was great not because Rome loved men, but because men loved Rome!

Still another guaranty is the fact that whatever may be said of the relative advantages of the small and the large college, it is obvious that for many people the small campus is particularly effective. This

does not mean the mediocre young student, or the occasional misfit, but it does hold for those temperaments whose transition from a restricted mode of life to the free and easy atmosphere of the complex university would prove too much of an obstacle. To progress suddenly from one environment to another may seriously hamper the proper intellectual and sociological growth of some. The smaller college, in such cases, provides an ideal stepping stone for these people and in many cases serves to prepare the students for the wider and more diversified precincts of the university. This narrowness is not, for the most part, a dogmatic narrowness, or a lack of family training and culture, but is mainly the result of geographical separation or isolation from the centers of influence of art, literature, science, and commerce. The demand for this type of transitional campus is another guaranty for the continued existence of the smaller college.

Another determinant, and an important one, is the economic side of college student life. Today, with rising tuition costs, the young student who desires a college education and is unable to command a scholarship finds increasing difficulty in securing the means to make his educational dreams possible. In the larger institutions the expense involved is generally much more considerable than in the smaller college. These larger educational plants, located in many cases in localities where board and room are at a premium, and where many of the facets of social life demand a style of living that would be unnecessary elsewhere, are prohibitive to many young men and women. The smaller place where the demands are not quite so great offers a distinct haven to these less wealthy students, where they may attain their educational objectives at a reasonable price level.

Another determinant to be considered is the geographical factor. Even the largest of our educational institutions draw the most part of their student membership from a radius of one hundred miles. This fact undoubtedly explains the large number of colleges scattered throughout the nation and is one more reason to assure the future of the small college.

Furthermore, educational tradition is most conservative, and this tradition in the United States has, in general, been in favor of the small college. This American policy of founding small colleges here and there is so strongly fixed that no great modification of it may be anticipated. There is no firm reason to believe that the large university, regardless of how wealthy or powerful it may become, will replace the small college.

One of the most important features of the small college is the religious atmosphere under which the great majority of these places were founded and have grown. Most of the small colleges were founded by members of a religious sect to perpetuate and to protect the tenets of a distinct religious faith. It has enabled the founders to provide a religious atmosphere which would be in complete agreement with the supporters' creed. If men of profound religious convictions continue to cherish such feelings they will continue to realize the necessity of educating those who will carry on these traditions. This religious factor is as strong as any that has so far been mentioned. It is perhaps the strongest of all, and yet it and the others that have preceded find their basis cemented in another factor—a very powerful and compelling factor.

The many small colleges scattered over the geographic face of America are the inevitable expression of the American spirit as it reaches into the realm of higher education. These colleges are an expression of our democratic spirit and desire. They are as truly American as any other institution of our country. It is this spirit in which the other factors find their basis, and which is undoubtedly the strongest and most certain guaranty of their continuance.

III

As to the factors which stand in the way of the development of the small college the foremost challenge has been brought about by the tremendous development of secondary education in the United States. The course of study in the high school is more extensive and more thorough than was the course of study in many of the better colleges a generation ago. The fact that the scientific work is often better than that of some of the small colleges which confer the bachelor's degree brings frustration and reproach to all concerned.

Another situation is brought about by the tendency to specialize. This is a natural outgrowth of the elective system and a logical result stemming from the ever increasing number of subjects offered in the curriculum. The small college is not able to furnish the opportunity to follow completely this tendency toward specialism, even when held within reasonable bounds. This is especially so because it very evidently is not justified in providing instruction in this or that special field of concentration when the number of its students interested in such work is so small.

One of the more important, perhaps the most important, of the

difficulties which the small college must overcome is the difficulty of securing the strongest men to do work on the salary that may be offered; and further, its inability to hold such men if once they have been secured. Generally, this leads to the adoption of one of two policies. In some situations the college is satisfied with having young instructors who are strong and active, even with the knowledge that vacancies will constantly occur, and thus cause innumerable changes in the staff. The supreme disadvantage in a policy of this sort is, naturally, the lack of continuity in the spirit of the institution, the inability to develop a feeling of "belongingness." But it is certainly a much superior policy to the other, under which men of second- or third-rate ability are hired, with the feeling that no other educational organization will cause difficulty by luring them away. Conversely, the larger university is able not only to select the strongest men and to pay them a salary which will make them satisfied to remain, but also to employ younger men at reduced salary rates because the younger men see that there is always opportunity ahead.

Today, a great source of concern to many of the small colleges is the tremendous growth of the state universities. Slowly the influence of our state universities has gained ground until in some states it has become almost impossible for the colleges to continue their work with any degree of satisfaction. So strong has the ill-feeling and antagonism become that in more than one state the colleges have formed alliances, the object of which is to meet with a concerted front the rapid encroachments of the state. The explanation of this situation is simple: With a tremendous political influence; with the large number of alumni occupying the chief educational positions; with a small tuition fee; with appropriations for excellent facilities for work in nearly every area; with costly laboratory equipment; and with libraries far more comprehensive than any ordinary college can even dream of possessing, the state university presents an inducement to students which the smaller college is hard pressed to duplicate.

Considering now the changes affecting the small colleges which are to be expected and are to be desired, seemingly the laws governing the growth of higher educational organizations are very similar to those governing the lower order of life itself, and in the development of colleges we may rather confidently look for a survival of the fittest. The severe tests to which many colleges and universities are subjected generally serve to purify and harden their continued

existence. The ones which have survived the trials and rigorous tests have more than justified their continued existence. This subsequent life will be all the stronger because of the difficulties that have been conquered. The purpose of suffering is, therefore, much the same as in the case of an individual. There will, of course, be fluctuations and change, for the good educational institution is not static. It will be at times less strong than at other times, its standards will be less ideal, and its life less vigorous. But by changing and by facing tests and emerging victorious the college will grow into strength which even under the strain of the greatest difficulties will prove invincible.

Another factor confronting the small college is the apparent fact that practically all of them are of the same type. So far as a general mold is concerned, each college is an almost exact duplicate of its next-door neighbor. An eye-wearying monotony presents itself to anyone who makes even a cursory study of these plants. All try to cover too much territory, and what is much worse, all try to cover practically the same territory. Because this is true, the result is that very little effort has been expended to establish a school which will allow any thoroughness or depth. Each unit is planned on horizontal lines rather than vertical. The college that has no endowment, or an endowment of just a few thousand dollars, tries to do the same things, cover the same academic ground, which the university with millions of dollars of endowment finds difficult to accomplish successfully. The time must come when smaller institutions will try to cultivate individualism; when one college will devote a large measure of its strength to the development of a department of modern languages, another to history and political science, another perhaps to the field of biological sciences. In other words they will build vertically and search for soundness rather than broadness. Such a step would lift educational work above the small jealousies and rivalries which today weaken it and slow its growth. It would ease the evil of competition and would assure the continued growth and welfare of all, thus enabling the small college to survive with an ease and distinction it has never before known.

Parental Expectations and Attitudes about Colleges*

JOHN L. HOLLAND

SINCE parents probably exert great influence on their child's selection of a college, it is desirable to learn how they evaluate colleges, what they expect from a college, and what they conceive to be the "ideal" college. Besides being useful to those institutions that wish to attract more talented students, such information would help to explain the clustering of scholarship winners in a limited number of universities and to throw light on the process of college selection (2).

Various studies have suggested that there are marked differences among institutions with respect to their intellectual atmosphere, the abilities and backgrounds of their student bodies, and the scholastic, political, and scientific achievements of their graduates (1, 2, 3, 4, 5). Although the results of these studies are ambiguous, they indicate that the college which a student attends is closely related to his potential achievement and his personal development.

In this report, which is the second in a series of studies devoted to the problem of college choice,¹ three major questions have been explored: (1) How do parents evaluate colleges? (2) How do they visualize the ideal college? And (3) how do they expect colleges to affect their children?

The data were obtained from a questionnaire sent about a month before the fall term in 1957 to the parents of National Merit Scholars and Certificate of Merit winners in the 1957 National Merit Scholarship program. The following tables are based on a 92 per cent return from the parents of National Merit Scholars, or 764 families, and a 62 per cent return from a one-sixth random sample of the total group of Certificate of Merit winners, or 652 families. One or both parents filled out the questionnaire.

* This study was partially supported by the National Science Foundation and the Old Dominion Foundation. I am indebted to Laura Kent and Donald L. Thistlethwaite for their critical reviews of this report.

¹The first study in this series, "Student Explanations of College Choice and Their Relation to College Popularity, College Productivity, and Sex Differences," appeared in *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, 33:313-320, 1958.

HOW PARENTS EVALUATE COLLEGES

Since a preliminary study suggests that students tend to arrange colleges into a relatively stable status hierarchy, parents were asked: "What college or university do you consider as the 'best' college in the United States?" Presumably, the responses to such an inquiry reveal an ordering of various colleges according to their reputation or status. Table I shows the distribution of preferences based on responses to this question.

Since parents would be expected to nominate the colleges that their children will attend, a check was made to determine the relation of "best" college to "anticipated" college of attendance. This analysis reveals that 46.2 and 32.8 per cent of the Merit Scholars' and Certifi-

TABLE I
"WHAT COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY DO YOU CONSIDER AS THE
'BEST' COLLEGE IN THE UNITED STATES?"

Institution	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars (N=764)	Certificate of Merit (N=652)
Harvard.....	17.7	20.9
Massachusetts Institute of Technology.....	8.2	10.7
Princeton.....	2.9	2.9
Yale.....	2.6	2.6
Columbia.....	2.0	2.5
Stanford.....	2.0	1.2
California Institute of Technology.....	1.8	1.4
University of Michigan.....	1.7	1.2
University of Notre Dame.....	1.3	2.0
Swarthmore.....	1.2	.6
Reed.....	1.0	.5
University of Chicago.....	.9	.6
Cornell.....	.8	.3
University of California.....	.5	.9
Oberlin.....	.5	.8
University of Pennsylvania.....	.4	.8
Rice.....	.3	.8
Northwestern.....	.3	.8
Others (4 nominations or less).....	15.2	15.6
Miscellaneous comment*.....	38.7	32.9
Total.....	100.0	100.0

Note.—The distribution of responses in Table I and succeeding tables has been converted to percentages of parents. In the remaining tables responses often total to more than 100 per cent since many respondents made 2 or more classifiable comments to a single question.

* Twenty per cent of the parents believe the "best college" is an individual matter and therefore rejected the question of "best college" as meaningless. Another 18.7 per cent gave a variety of unclassifiable responses or made no comment.

cate of Merit winners' parents respectively name the college of probable attendance as the "best," and 53.8 and 67.2 per cent nominate colleges other than the college of anticipated attendance. These results suggest that planned attendance at an institution has little effect on judgments of quality: the majority of both groups nominate colleges other than the college of anticipated attendance; further, the parental preferences for Certificate of Merit winners are almost identical with those of parents of Merit Scholars, even though Certificate of Merit winners attend a greater variety of colleges, or are less concentrated in the popular colleges.

The nominations for "the best college" are of interest for a variety of reasons. First, the ordering of colleges is similar for both samples; in fact, the first four colleges—Harvard, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Princeton, and Yale—are ranked in identical order, and there are only minor differences in the distribution of the remaining colleges. Second, for two-thirds of the parents, a crude ordering of colleges in terms of excellence or reputation seems to exist. The latter interpretation is suggested by the clustering of nominations for "best college": the 18 colleges shown in Table I comprise only about 1 per cent of the nation's 1886 colleges and universities, yet they received almost three-fourths of the total nominations. The remaining 72 colleges, each of which received from one to four mentions, account for only about one-fourth of the nominations; 1796 colleges received *no* nominations. Third, this differential ranking is closely related to the college attendance of talented students. Fifteen of the 18 colleges in Table I are also among the 19 colleges attended most frequently by Merit Scholars and Certificate of Merit winners in 1956. Fourth, Thistlethwaite's study of college scholarship offers (6) reveals that 15 of the 18 colleges in Table I belong to a small sample of 38 colleges whose scholarship offers comprise about 43 per cent of the total scholarship offers made to a sample of Certificate of Merit winners in the 1956 National Merit program.

The meaning of Table I is expanded and clarified by the free responses of parents to a related question: "What aspects of the above college ('the best in the U.S.')

 make it the best college?" The replies to this question have been classified in Table II. From this table, it is clear that parents believe that the quality of a college depends chiefly on the quality of its faculty, scholastic standards, curriculum, reputation, and facilities. These trends are further documented by

TABLE II
 "WHAT ASPECTS OF THE (NOMINATED) COLLEGE MAKE IT
 THE BEST COLLEGE?"

Free Responses	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars (N=764)	Certificate of Merit (N=652)
Faculty	32.1	27.0
Curriculum	27.4	22.0
High scholastic standards	20.5	13.2
Prestige factors	20.2	25.3
Facilities	14.9	13.5
Social milieu	13.0	10.5
Size; faculty-student ratio	11.5	7.2
Emphasis on morality and ethical values	7.2	6.0
Progressive, liberal outlook	6.2	3.4
Location	3.0	3.4
Research and graduate program	2.6	3.1
General philosophy of education	2.5	1.7
Emphasis on personal development of student	2.4	3.1
"Dependent on needs of individual student"	—	4.4
Miscellaneous responses and no opinion	30.5	29.8

TABLE III
 "THINK OF A COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY WHICH YOU CONSIDER
 ONE OF THE POOREST IN THE COUNTRY. WHAT MAKES
 IT A POOR PLACE TO GO?"

Free Responses	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars (N=764)	Certificate of Merit (N=652)
Low scholarship standards and admission requirements ..	22.0	18.9
Inadequate faculty	21.7	18.1
Social atmosphere	13.0	12.9
Inadequate facilities	12.2	11.5
Size	10.9	11.3
Narrow-mindedness, conservatism	9.4	5.7
Radicalism; left-wing	7.2	4.1
Curriculum	7.1	5.1
"Every school okay for someone"	3.4	4.0
Politically influenced	2.0	1.5
Location; climate	1.8	1.8
Lack of academic freedom	1.7	.8
Poor reputation	1.6	4.4
Poor administrative organization	1.6	1.1
No accreditation	1.4	.9
No cultural atmosphere	1.2	1.1
No campus life; unattractive campus7	2.1
Miscellaneous comment and no opinion	38.7	47.0

TABLE IV
 "WHAT ARE THE CHIEF ADVANTAGES OF GOING TO COLLEGE?"

Free Responses	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars (N=764)	Certificate of Merit (N=652)
Development of intellectual abilities.....	39.8	29.0
Preparation for career.....	36.4	30.4
Financial betterment.....	23.4	22.4
Development of social skills and personality.....	20.4	16.6
Obtaining an education.....	18.6	15.2
Moral, spiritual, and ethical development.....	18.3	9.8
Individual development.....	17.9	18.3
Broadening of outlook.....	17.3	13.5
Appreciation of cultural heritage.....	7.5	10.9
Improvement of social position.....	7.3	4.6
"Better able to face life's problems".....	6.0	13.2
Better citizenship.....	5.1	4.9
"College degree is an asset".....	1.4	1.7
Miscellaneous comment and no opinion.....	3.2	6.3

parent responses to another query: "Think of a college or university which you consider one of the poorest in the country. What makes it a poor place to go?" The responses to this question, shown in Table III, are couched in terms opposed to those in Table II: that is, the poorest college has an inadequate faculty, low scholastic standards, poor facilities, etc.

Table IV again reveals the concern that these adults have about intellectual development and training. In general, both groups emphasize college training as a means of developing intellectual abilities, preparing for a career, and bettering oneself financially. About one-third of the total group ranks "the development of intellectual abilities" first, whereas "the development of social skills and personality," "obtaining an education," "moral development," and various other advantages are ranked lower, being acknowledged as important college goals by about one-fifth of the total sample.

THE IDEAL COLLEGE

To secure parental images of the ideal college, parents were asked to respond to a series of eight dichotomies of college characteristics. Sixty-four per cent of the parents prefer a small to a large college; 69 per cent prefer a private to a public institution; 58 per cent prefer a nonreligious college to one which has religious affiliations; 94 per cent prefer a college with a national rather than

a local reputation. Parents are about equally divided on the question of the distance of the college: 47 per cent prefer a college close to home, and 53 per cent prefer a college away from home. Eighty per cent prefer a coeducational to a single-sex college, and 77 per cent prefer a low-cost to a high-cost college. Fifty-eight per cent prefer that the college have a "liberal arts orientation"; 36 per cent, a "scientific reputation"; and 2 per cent, a "business orientation."

Parents were also urged to comment specifically about "the ideal college for my children"; their free comments reinforce in many instances the results shown in previous tables. Aside from the general stipulation that the college be one where the child "would be happy," parents name as the most important considerations, high-caliber faculty, small size (in particular, favorable student-faculty ratio), and liberal arts reputation. They show relatively little concern with facilities, location, sports, discipline, social activities, cost, the nature of the student body, the extracurricular program, and similar considerations.

DISCUSSION

In reviewing the results of the present study some cautions are in order. First, the parents in this sample are atypical in several respects. In general, they come from the middle and upper income groups, and have one or more children whose exceptional academic talent makes them unrepresentative of high school seniors in the United States. It is not known whether parents of less able students from lower economic groups would respond in the same way.

The present study strongly implies that a crude ordering of colleges by quality exists in the minds of most parents who have one or more children of high academic promise. In broad outline, the "good" or "ideal" college, according to the characteristic parental image, is a private coeducational institution with a national reputation, an outstanding faculty, and high scholastic standards. The probable existence of a college preference hierarchy and of an accompanying ideal college stereotype has a number of important implications for such problems as the clustering of the winners of national scholarship programs, variations in talent supply among colleges and universities, the growth and development of these institutions, and the college selection process. First, since parents can be assumed to exert considerable influence and control in the choice of a college, their beliefs about colleges may play a sub-

stantial role in concentrating high ability students in a limited number of institutions and may partially account for the relative avoidance of the great majority of collegiate institutions. Second, this clustering of high ability students may serve to enrich and increase the achievements of a few institutions and to impoverish other institutions which do not fit the stereotype of the ideal, or to delay the growth of many potentially outstanding institutions.

These findings, and the inferences drawn from them, raise another question: How valid are parental images of various colleges? If students and parents are to make discriminating choices of college, more needs to be known about college characteristics which are conducive to academic achievement; the accuracy of the present hierarchy which seems to be at work in college selection must be tested against fact. Although most parents feel that there is a group of generally outstanding institutions, about 20 per cent believe that choosing the "best" college must always be an individual matter of finding a stimulating interaction between a particular student and a particular college. Such an orientation appears especially meaningful in terms of our present knowledge of learning and of the influences of college and peer subcultures.

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The Advanced Placement Program*

DAVID A. DUDLEY

IT IS A privilege to be with you this morning—and I appreciate very much indeed your invitation to talk to you and to discuss the Advanced Placement Program with you. I am going to divide my talk into two parts: first of all, a little background concerning the Advanced Placement Program; and secondly, the aspects of the Program which may be of particular interest to you as registrars, as administrative officers in the field of education.

Let me start with a few definitions. An advanced placement course was defined by Professor Charles R. Keller, the College Entrance Examination Board's first Advanced Placement Program Director, as a college-level course for able and ambitious students. The student must be able and intelligent. And Professor Keller's use of the word "ambitious" in his original definition was his recognition of the fact that motivation along with ability is an important factor in good academic work.

These advanced placement, college-level courses are not "honor" courses, except in the very exceptional school. In other words, they are not merely fast sections. To put it concretely, an advanced placement mathematics course is not a stepped up trigonometry course for bright students. It is a calculus course for bright and interested students.

The philosophy behind the Advanced Placement Program is simple enough. It is a recognition of the fact that not all students, apparently, are created with equal mental abilities. Or at least, they don't seem to have equal academic potential by the time they have arrived at the high school level. Having accepted the advanced placement philosophy, the pioneers in the program were willing to take the next step, to say that the very able student should be allowed to proceed at a faster pace in a field of his liking than the average or slow student. In other words, advanced placement is a means of breaking the lock-step educational tradition at the high school level.

* A talk given at the meeting of the Southern Association, Richmond, Virginia, December 4, 1957.

The main purposes of the Advanced Placement Program may be stated as—and I think in this order—enrichment, placement, credit, and acceleration.

First of all, enrichment. The teaching of the more advanced courses to the better secondary school students is an enrichment of *their* curricula—and an enrichment of the intellectual atmosphere of the high school extending down through the lower years.

Placement is a result of enrichment. The proper placement of students when they get to college is a necessary concomitant of the program. A student who has done well in a mature 12th grade American history course will be bored and restless if he repeats the same material in the 13th grade. If he has read widely and searchingly in history at the age of seventeen, he should be allowed to expand his reading list at eighteen. A student who has read intelligently in the college equivalent of a course in Vergil, should not be made to read over again the very same books the next year in college. He should proceed to expand his horizons, to read from among some others of the Latin authors.

I think there is not so much hesitation in accepting the *philosophy* of advanced placement. There is not always, however, an understanding of the *mechanics* involved in placement. Good college placement is found in a college whose faculty aspires to humility as it aspires to high standards. And both of these goals take striving.

The question of credit is a touchier question than placement, but I am going to talk about credit—and the more controversial question of acceleration—because I think that we shall not get any place if we avoid discussing problems just because there may be differences of opinion among us. When you come right down to it, college faculties should be devoted to the ideal of discussing areas where there *are* differences of opinion!

By "credit" I mean here the actual granting of college semester hours credit or credit units for a college-level course taken in high school. Let me say right away that each college is going to solve this problem the way it wishes to. The College Entrance Examination Board cannot and does not wish to dictate to any college. A high school most certainly cannot dictate to a college. In fact, one of the glories of America is that no one can dictate to a college.

On the other hand, college administrations and faculties must be

willing to listen to outsiders if they are going to make their best present decisions on the basis of present situations. I reject the thesis that one must not talk to a professor or college administrator. In both capacities I have been spoken to by many people—and especially as an admissions officer, I have been called many things!

I myself like to see a college grant credit because I think the award of credit is deserved and is the sort of generous gesture that the strong can afford to make. I think it is important to the morale of the advanced placement student in high school—and to the morale of his high school teacher—that the college give this full recognition. In actual practice, you will find that the gesture will cost the colleges little. A good student who receives credit for one or two subjects will make good use of that extra time because he *is* a good student and wants to make good use of his time. In other words, in most cases he will make use of his released time to take more advanced courses. Where he fails to do this, he may still be making good use of his time, but in ways that are not easily stated on a transcript. He may be simply doing a great deal of extra reading. The occasional instance where a student may use his released time to waste his time, I would be inclined to look upon as the exception that proves the rule.

I am happy to say that among the colleges and universities which have been most generous in their recognition of placement *and* credit have been some of the outstanding colleges and universities of the country. They have been most effective supporters of the Advanced Placement Program.

II

I want to touch now, very briefly, upon the subject of acceleration. By acceleration, I mean advanced standing which will allow a student to reduce his number of years in college. Acceleration is an emotive word; but I think that the idea behind advanced placement is well enough established by now so that we can hope to talk with some objectivity about its polemic aspects. Again, the corrective lies in the fact that each college will do what it wants to, regardless of what any of us may say. Each college is a law unto itself in this matter of placement and credit and acceleration. But the Director of the Advanced Placement Program has a right to state his ideas on the subject. In fact, he very likely has a duty to state his ideas.

It seems to me that the minute I acknowledge the fact that there

are differences among students, I have started on a train of thought which will lead logically to a second conclusion, that there may be further differences within the groupings. In other words, if I assume that in a high school of 1,000 students, there are 50 or 100 students who may be quite a bit faster than the others, I may later conclude that among these 50, there is one that is even faster than the other 49. And my own feeling is that this boy or girl should be given every encouragement. I see no reason for holding him back.

A student who aspires to college acceleration will find it necessary to establish advanced credit in three, four, or five subjects, a very exceptional feat indeed. But when such an unusual student may wish to drive ahead faster than the others, my own sentiments would be to clear the track for him.

Again, let me repeat that these quite outstanding students will be a very small number indeed, a fraction of one per cent in most colleges, perhaps up to five or ten per cent in the prestige colleges which attract large numbers of bright students. But even among these potential academic speeders, many will choose to remain the full four years. Others will simply speed up their progress towards their ultimate graduate degrees, to a total of seven or six years instead of eight or seven. They will enter the higher level graduate courses at an earlier date. In a field like mathematics, where youth seems to play such an important part in creative accomplishment, this individual acceleration can be of vital interest to the productivity of the student and the enhancement of the field itself.

Before I proceed to that part of my talk which I think may be of particular interest to this audience, let me add one more observation on how the Advanced Placement Program has worked out since 1955 when it was taken over by the College Board after its earlier experimental phase when it had been backed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The answer seems to be that the program is doing very well indeed: still small, but vigorous and growing. In May of 1957 over 2,000 took 3,700 Advanced Placement examinations administered by the Educational Testing Service. These students came from over 200 different secondary schools and have now scattered to 200 different colleges.¹ Some colleges are beginning to receive

¹ In 1958, 3,757 students took 6,848 examinations. They came from 359 schools and have been admitted to 301 colleges.

Advanced Placement students in influential numbers. Most of the colleges are giving placement to the deserving—and most of *these* are giving placement and credit. College teachers are taking an increased interest in secondary school education. They contribute to the extremely good attendance at the June school and college Advanced Placement conferences sponsored by the College Board in each subject area. And there is an Advanced Placement conference for administrators as well. And finally, college teachers are in many instances re-examining their own freshman and sophomore courses, prompted from below.

The effect upon the high schools has been even more marked. Letters from the high schools by the score indicate that the intellectual atmosphere of the participating schools has been helped by the introduction of Advanced Placement courses. Student and teacher morale has been lifted. Teaching methods have been improved all the way down the line, for the teacher who puts extra preparation into an Advanced Placement course finds that his teaching of slower students is also helped. School standards have been bolstered. And school curricula are undergoing major revision studies. For example, the minute you start talking about advanced placement in fields such as mathematics or science or languages, you may begin a line of inquiry which leads you, eventually, to a consideration of the introduction of algebra into the eighth grade, the introduction of biology into the ninth grade, and the introduction of the study of language into the grammar school. A great many forces are at work in our society today which are fostering these curriculum studies, and the Advanced Placement Program is one of the major influences.

III

And now I would like to come to the part of my talk which, I think, may be of special interest to you as registrars, as administrative officers, as you are asked for information and advice at your own institutions concerning the Advanced Placement examinations and the questions of placement and credit.

The Advanced Placement examinations are three-hour essay examinations. There are some objective questions, but the emphasis is on free response. The examinations are given in May of every year and anyone may take them after proper registration. Each examination

is written by a committee of five teachers: three college professors and two secondary school teachers. In the construction of an examination, each committee is aided by the advice of an educational test consultant at the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey. Having watched these committees at work this fall, I can most certainly testify to the quality of the personnel: they may not be able and ambitious, but they are most surely very able and very hard working.

After the students take the examinations in May, the papers are read in June at a central place by a committee of readers made up of college professors and secondary school teachers, under the direction of subject Chief Readers or co-ordinators, and supervised by a Director of Reading. Incidentally, there is always a duplication of personnel between the examination and the reading committees so that neither the Examination nor the Reading Committee loses touch with the other. There is enough overlapping of personnel to provide good communication between the two committees. Each Chief Reader, for example, is a member of his Examination Committee, or sits with it when the examination is being constructed.

A further safety factor is introduced in this way: every spring, a number of college students take these examinations. These examination papers, undistinguished from the secondary school papers, are slipped in among the secondary school papers when the examinations are read. After the reading and grading, the college papers are separated from the others. If the grading has been "true," then the honor student in college should be receiving a top grade, "5" or "4," on the examination. The "C" or passing student in college should be receiving about a "3" or a "2," our middle grades. And the failing college student (and we ask for these among our controls also) should receive our failing grade of "1."

I have called these papers "control" papers. Actually they were always referred to more accurately by Professor Keller as points of reference. They are a safety factor in two ways: they protect the colleges by insuring that reading standards are high; they protect the secondary schools by indicating where the grading may have been too rigorous. Experience has shown that these points of reference are a very good insurance factor in the reading of the examinations. And experience has shown, incidentally, that the secondary school stu-

dents do more than hold their own in relation to the college students against whom they are to a certain extent competing on these examinations.

You will notice that I have spoken of honor grades and passing grades on these examinations. As you know, the ordinary College Board examinations are marked on a scale that avoids this sort of definition. A 550 on a College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test may be defined by each college as each college wishes to define it. The Advanced Placement examination grades, however, are rated on a scale which the Reading Committees *do* define. The grade of "1" is a failure. Grades above "1" are considered above failure. And "5" and "4" are considered honor or distinctive grades.

And herein lies considerable confusion.

Once we have defined our grades, it is of course entirely up to each college whether it wishes to accept our definitions. But we have defined our grades in an attempt to be helpful to the colleges. And I myself feel that further explanation is perhaps advisable.

Some of the newer colleges in the Advanced Placement Program are voting recognition to grades of "5" and "4"—and cutting off all consideration of grades below "4." I think that this rigid cutoff is done on the assumption that a "creditable" grade made by a high school student is not "creditable" in college. Only an honor high school grade is creditable in the usually stiffer competition of college. But this is not quite the right assumption, because the grade given is *not* a high school grade. It is a college grade earned in severe competition. It can be looked upon as comparable to a college transfer grade.

Incidentally, I am not asking here for placement or credit as a result of a "3" or a "2" grade. I am asking merely for *consideration* of those middle grades; I am asking that colleges do not cut off at the "4" level, refusing to look at the grades below "5" and "4." A student who has done creditable work in a subject should not automatically be made to repeat it. You would not allow it in your own colleges.

Just before coming down here, I analyzed, with my daughter Sara's help, the actions of five of our oldest and largest colleges in the Advanced Placement movement. I noticed that placement and credit were given to the majority of examination grades of "5" and "4."

I noticed that credit was seldom given to grades of "2" or "1," although occasionally, and presumably on the basis of further evidence submitted. And I noticed that college and department action was divided on the "3's." Some "3's" got placement and credit, and some did not. I know that in some of these colleges, some of the departments make a point of interviewing each "3" student to determine in each individual case whether placement and credit is the best thing for the individual student.

And that brings me to my next plea.

I hope very much that the colleges will base their actions on more than just the examination grades.

Where you are dealing with a "5" or a "4" grade, and where you may be dealing with very large numbers, a college department or administration may wish to take the short-cut of using "4's" and "1's" as cutoff points for its quick decisions. But the college will have considerable evidence presented to it besides the examinations, evidence which will allow those interested to give individual consideration to each student presenting a request for advanced placement or for placement and credit. And college authorities may be particularly anxious to take this second look when the grades presented are "3's" and "2's."

After the examinations are read by our Reading Committees, the papers are then forwarded to the college to which the student has been admitted. In other words, each college department will have a chance to read for itself the examination book of the student applicant. I hope that each professor reading such a book, incidentally, will read it in other than a competing spirit. The student has in fact become by then his own student.

Along with the examination book goes a course outline of the material covered in the student's class. Each Advanced Placement teacher in high school sends his course outline to the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, and ETS in turn forwards this course description to the college. And along with the examination book and the course outline, goes the teacher's recommendation as to whether or not the student should get college placement, or placement and credit. I hope, particularly in these early years, that more and more colleges will give attention to these other factors in a student's application for placement, factors other than merely the ex-

amination grades. It is fairer to the student that it be done this way. And it is better for the Advanced Placement Program, because from such college considerations may come some of our best and most constructive criticisms. We need the judgments of our colleagues if we are going to prosper. Schools and colleges should be in constant correspondence with each other, and with the College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service, if all of us involved are together going to strengthen the Advanced Placement Program. In fact it is right here in this area of encouraging and developing school and college communication that the Advanced Placement Program may make one of its major contributions to American education.

Afro-Asian Education*

CLARA H. KOENIG

WHEN I was first asked to participate in a panel discussion on Afro-Asian education by contributing a ten-minute statement on that subject, I felt stunned and bewildered in consideration of the vastness and diversity of the area that that designation includes. One illustration of the diversity of the area is the difference in the density of the population in various countries. Leaving out of consideration such areas of concentration as Singapore and Hong Kong, the figures range from five per square mile in French Equatorial Africa to 683 in Formosa. Another example is the illiteracy of the people, ranging from 99 per cent in British Somaliland to .017 per cent in Burma. These figures were reported in 1953 and may therefore not be entirely accurate now. And strangely enough, some of the problems which most of the countries in this area have in common are problems for opposite reasons, as, for example, the fact that in many of them a considerable percentage of the children of school age are not attending school. In some this is due to the fact that there are too many children for the accommodations available, while in others facilities cannot profitably be provided because there are not enough children in a given area. This is indeed a region of contrasts and diversity.

But when I began to explore the literature that is available about the countries involved, I soon found that after all a certain pattern is discernible, and it occurred to me that it might be profitable to try to discover the elements that compose that pattern, to analyze them briefly, and to determine what significance and implications they have for us as admissions officers and to some extent, at least, foreign student advisers.

First of all, one of the most dynamic, and certainly one of the most important of these elements is the desire, almost universal among the people of this area, for independence, or, as it is usually called, "nationalism." It began in the latter half of the nineteenth century when its forces in the Middle East caused the Ottoman Empire, which was

* A paper presented at the Forty-Fourth Annual Meeting of AACRAO, April 1958.

the dominant power in that region, to be called a "sick man." It was at work among the Jews who wished to re-establish themselves as a nation in the Holy Land. It was at work also among the Arabs who dreamed of re-establishing a united Islam. The United States had considerable to do with encouraging the movement through its missionary institutions and its political philosophy.

In the course of World War I it received great impetus from the attitude of all the Allied Powers. At the close of the war much of the Middle East became mandated among a large number of powers with the understanding that they would prepare their charges for ultimate independence. This was not accomplished to any great extent, and it was not until after World War II that many of the countries of the Middle East as well as in Asia and Africa either peacefully or by violence succeeded in winning their independence. Their example has inspired others, many of which are not yet ready for independent status, to become restive and strive toward that end. Significantly, also, there is an almost fierce determination within those who have freed themselves, to resist any influence from any other nation. And so the principle of "neutralism" was born.

But whether it has worked out its objective peacefully or otherwise, the spirit of nationalism has created turbulence and instability with impact on all segments of life, including education. For example, funds which might be used to build schools and equip them are used for military or political purposes; personnel that might be trained for teaching are channelled into other fields; pupils who should be in school are drained off to aid in economic and other enterprises; and the general moral tone of the country has been lowered. We can well imagine the effect that the rebellion in Algeria is having upon the life of the people in that country, not to mention Indonesia where a disrupting post-independence struggle is going on.

A second characteristic of this area is what has been called "The Population Explosion." "In its massive struggle for a greater share of the world's wealth, mankind's underprivileged majority is on a collision course with the most violent explosion of population in world history," according to University of California sociologist Kingsley Davis. The world's 2.7 billion population has almost doubled in the past seventy years, and is expected to redouble every forty-two years hereafter. This has occurred primarily in the so-called

"underdeveloped" countries. The danger is that in those nations in which production continues to lag there will be a resort to political extremes that will increase their want. Education will naturally suffer, since the respective governments, far from being able to provide adequate facilities under existing conditions, will find themselves falling further behind in providing them for the future.

A third element in this pattern is the great popular demand for more and more education. This thirst for knowledge has its roots in the picture which these countries have of such countries as the United States. If education can do for us what it evidently has, they want more of it. For the most part the governments of the respective countries recognize the necessity of satisfying this demand, and are trying to meet it as best they can with their scanty national incomes, supplemented by aid from more fortunate countries. In countries where the illiteracy rate is high, fundamental literacy and adult education movements have been put into operation. Others are placing great emphasis on primary education as a means of building up a population that will be able to take its place with the rest of the world. One goal that exists in practically every country of this area is that of a universal, free, compulsory primary education. It is an uphill job in all the countries; and there is a crying need everywhere for school buildings, equipment of all kinds, including text and library books, teaching materials, and most of all, a trained personnel to take charge in both the administrative and the teaching fields. Of course we hear of similar shortages in our own country; but there is this vast difference, that whereas they do not have the resources with which to combat them, we do have the necessary resources and need only to distribute them differently.

Incidentally, one factor which has usually been considered as a criterion in judging a country's educational aptness is the education of its women. In practically all of the countries of which we are speaking, there has been a prideful and steady increase in the number of women who are given an opportunity for an education. Could there be any significance in the fact that in the United States there is talk of denying higher education to women in competition with men? Could it be that we are slipping while they are advancing?

A further characteristic of this Afro-Asian area is the need for a change in educational philosophy. The traditional idea that only an

academic education is respectable still persists, so that, while in many instances it would be to a country's advantage to concentrate on vocational education and technical training, the people reject that idea in favor of a kind of education that gives them only unemployment and therefore economic imbalance, with resulting dissatisfaction and unrest. There are some signs of improvement in this situation; but in general, vocational education is still very unpopular. Related to this attitude is a lingering veneration for a type or system of education that emphasizes memorization, the unquestioning and almost worshipful attitude of the student toward an authoritarian teacher, and the passing of certain established examinations instead of inquiry and experimentation. Furthermore, governments must become convinced that they must spend an even larger percentage of their total income than they are now doing on the various phases of education, while at the same time refraining from dominating the educational scene. In most countries the percentage allocated to education is very small, while there is a high degree of centralization of authority in a Ministry of Education, with a Minister of Education who has almost absolute control. It is true that in many instances the people are not yet ready to assume complete responsibility for their education, but they should be encouraged to do so as the general level of the country is raised. One means by which this process can be hastened is through the aid that many are receiving through international exchanges, e.g., Fulbright scholarships and travel grants, the International Education Exchange Service (IES), the International Co-operation Administration (ICA), and others.

In describing the educational conditions in the countries of the Afro-Asian group we must not omit to mention the great language difficulties with which many of them are struggling. Some of them do not even have a written language of their own, so that foreign languages have been the official media of communication. With the increase of nationalistic feeling, great resentment against this practice has arisen, and impetus has been given to the development of vernacular languages, especially in education where they are replacing English, French, etc., as the media of instruction. This is taking place particularly in the primary schools and often leads to great confusion when pupils are confronted with the necessity of learning an entirely new language if they wish to continue in higher education where the

language of instruction is usually still the traditional one of the "sheltering" country. Usually a compromise is made, whereby a language such as French or English is taught as a second language, being offered as either an elective or a compulsory subject.

And now, what meaning does all this have for us? It is simply that if we are to function properly with respect to the admission and placement of foreign students we must make ourselves as familiar as possible with the conditions and influences that have entered into their education before they apply to us for admission. Only in that way can we do justice to both them and ourselves, and make sure that everyone will profit from their coming here. There is no virtue in mere numbers. More and more is being heard to the effect that our degrees and certificates are not recognized when the students who receive them return to their home countries. To some extent, at least, that is due to the poor screening some of them have been given; for why, the argument goes, should a country which, for example, has refused to admit a certain student to its own institutions of higher learning because of his poor scholastic standing, consider that the institution in this country that has admitted him and awarded him a degree or certificate, has standards as high as its own?

To some extent this attitude is also the result of the "double standard" that has unfortunately been permitted to grow up in many of our institutions, whereby the foreign student is judged and marked less severely than our own, so that the degree he receives does not stand for the same thing that it does when it is conferred upon the United States student.

The dissatisfaction and resentment that these practices cause do not make for good international relations, and they are not necessary if the foreign student is carefully chosen. Naturally there are great difficulties in the way of making a selection, and there will undoubtedly never be a magic formula according to which a foreign student can be chosen and a good product assured. We make mistakes in the selection of our own students, and certainly there are more chances of making errors of judgment in the foreign field. But more and more means are being developed as aids for those whose responsibility it is to find "the best." Most encouraging of all, perhaps, is the increasing desire on the part of foreign countries to send us only qualified students, those who will be a credit to them. We find, for example, that

many of the embassies, and an increasing number of organizations abroad are willing and glad to help in furnishing reliable information concerning applicants from their countries or areas, and our own consular officials are increasingly helpful in this regard. Moreover, the literature in this field is rapidly expanding. The World Education Series of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers should be an important contribution.

The final two words to personnel engaged in the important activity of the admission and placement of foreign students, whether from the Afro-Asian or any other area, should undoubtedly be (1) to keep themselves fully informed of all developments in the foreign field, and (2) never to admit a student from another country hastily, without obtaining all information necessary for an adequate appraisal of his qualifications, regardless of the length of time necessary to assemble this material.

Studies on the Freshman Class of 1956 at the University of Arkansas

FRED L. KERR

INTRODUCTION

THIS STUDY was begun in the early spring of 1957 with the assembling of data on high school records and test scores. After the close of the spring semester, the college grades were assembled and various analyses undertaken. The desire was to find out what types of useful information could be produced, perhaps with some emphasis on ascertaining whether there might be any reliable criteria for selective admissions. A preliminary draft was presented to a High School Principals' Conference on the University campus at the end of October. The present form is an extensive revision of that draft with a number of additions.

At the outset it was felt that any results emanating from this study would be primarily useful in Arkansas. Hence data were compiled only on freshmen entering from Arkansas high schools. There were 912 such students in the freshman class in the Fall of 1956, including some who began their college work in the summer session immediately preceding. Of these, 42 withdrew during the fall semester before receiving any final grades, leaving a total of 870 students.

In addition, however, account was taken of 16 adult students entering on special tests. Of these, 14 remained long enough to receive college grades.

Wherever the "freshman class" is referred to in the following discussion it means the group of freshmen admitted from Arkansas high schools plus those admitted by special tests, excluding those who withdrew during the first semester before being assigned any official grades. It includes such students as began their college work in the preceding summer, provided they continued in the fall. Grades for the entire freshman year were used, except in the case of approximately 100 students who remained for one semester only. Grade-point averages are calculated on the basis of assigning 6 points to A, 4 to B, 2 to C, 0 to D, and -2 to F. Scores on the ACE and English tests are in percentile ranks on national norms.

COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE GRADES

It should be noted first that in the whole class of 870 freshmen the high school average is 3.89 and the college average is 2.39, a difference of 1.50 grade points or three-fourths of a letter grade. No attempt has been made to prove why this is so. It is suspected (though without proof) that the level of grading is higher in high school than in college for the same level of attainment. (It would be interesting to compare the percentage distribution of grades in these high schools with a similar distribution in college.) It is probably also true that a larger percentage of low-ranking high school graduates than of high-ranking graduates do not go to college. Then again, a considerable portion of freshmen find it difficult to adjust to the greater freedom from supervision over their work and study schedules. Furthermore, it is true that there is a considerable sprinkling of sophomores particularly, and of other upperclassmen also, in the classes for which freshmen enroll. In view of the so-called "Missouri" curve system nominally in effect these freshmen find themselves at some disadvantage in competing with their more sophisticated classmates. This general differential should be kept in mind in reading the following comparative table.

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE GRADES

High School		College							
Group	General Average	Number of Students							General Average
		5.00-6.00	4.00-4.99	3.00-3.99	2.00-2.99	1.00-1.99	0.00-0.99	Below 0.00	
5.00-6.00	5.48	32	60	65	34	17	2	2	3.74
4.00-4.99	4.43	4	14	55	86	31	22	2	2.61
3.00-3.99	3.49	3	8	15	70	64	23	21	1.87
2.00-2.99	2.73		4	11	38	62	40	34	1.34
1.00-1.99	1.58		2	2	5	13	16	18	0.85
0.00-0.99	0.49						2	2	0.06

As would be expected, there is a uniform decrease in college group averages with the decrease in high school averages. The differential for the first two groups is noticeably greater than the general differential noted above. For the last three groups it is somewhat less, probably because there is not so much room below to go. The most interesting feature of the table, however, is not the general group averages but the wide spread of college attainment in all groups (ex-

cept the last). In the first high school group 9.8 per cent made less than a C (2.0) average in college. In the second group 25.7 per cent made below C. Combining these two groups, of a total of 426 students who made a B average or better in high school, 76 (17.8 per cent) failed to make as much as a C average in college. On the other hand, of the 60 freshmen who entered with less than a C average in high school 15.0 per cent made a C average or better in college and an additional 21.7 per cent made from 1.00 to 1.99 which, although not an entirely acceptable record, is still not too serious a handicap for a freshman who can successfully adjust to college conditions and pull his average up in the succeeding years.

It appears, therefore, that, so far as group averages are concerned, the higher the grades in high school, the better the chances for good accomplishment in college, and conversely. But there are enough individual exceptions to invalidate any prediction with respect to an individual student (except for the four who ranked below a 1.0 average in high school).

TABLE II
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ENGLISH GRADES

College English Grades	High School English Grades									
	0.00-1.99		2.00-3.99		4.00-5.99		6.00		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
-2.00 to -0.01	30	27.0	32	9.8	7	1.9			69	7.9
0.00 to 1.99	36	32.4	75	23.0	32	8.9			143	16.4
2.00 to 3.99	36	32.4	160	49.1	168	46.7	22	20.7	386	44.3
4.00 to 5.99	7	6.3	52	16.0	133	36.9	37	50.0	229	26.3
6.00	2	1.8	7	2.1	20	5.6	15	20.3	44	5.1
Total	111		326		360		74		871	

So far as group averages are concerned, those with higher grades in high school English made higher grades in college English. But again note the individual differences. Of 111 freshmen with lower than a C average in high school English, 45 (40 per cent) made a C average or better in college English. This figure may be slightly distorted, however, by the fact that probably some of this group were put in the remedial course in college English where they were able to make better grades than they would have in the regular course. On the other hand, of 360 freshmen with a B average (4.00 to 5.99) in high school English, 39 (11 per cent) made below C in college Eng-

lish and 2 per cent made below a D average. No student with a straight A in high school English made below C in college English.

TEST SCORES

American Council on Education Test

Scores on this test were available for 605 freshmen who received college grades for one or two semesters. The scores are in percentile ranks based on national norms. These tests were taken either in the state-wide testing program or at the University at the opening of school. The relation of these scores to subsequent college grades is shown semigraphically in the following table.

TABLE III
COMPARISON OF ACE PERCENTILE RANKS AND
COLLEGE GRADE AVERAGES

		University Averages									
		-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total %
ACE Percentile Ranks	100				1	6	8	12	4	31	5.1
	90			2	7	13	7	12	6	47	7.8
	80	2	2	2	8	17	14	9	9	63	10.4
	70	2	4	4	7	12	15	4	2	50	8.3
	60	1	1	4	11	22	11	8	2	60	10.0
	50	2	2	8	25	23	11	6	5	82	13.6
	40	3	3	7	18	18	9	7		65	10.8
	30	3	6	16	14	17	10	3		69	11.4
	20	2	9	11	19	19	15	4		79	13.1
	10	2	11	9	20	10	3	1	1	57	9.5
Total		17	38	63	130	157	103	66	29	603	100.0

The right hand column of percentages in Table III shows that the Arkansas freshmen are distributed in reasonably close agreement with the national norms. There is, to be sure, a slight tendency downward, in that the top three groups, above the 70th percentile, include only

23.3 per cent instead of the 30 per cent which would be expected for perfect agreement. It might be pointed out, however, that the national norms were established on the basis of tests given to college freshmen, whereas most of our Arkansas people took this test early in their senior year in high school. It will be argued that the level of intelligence does not materially increase beyond the chronological age of 16. This test, however, is not purely a test of native intelligence. There is of necessity some element of achievement in it. Had our people taken this test a year later I feel sure that they would have ranked even closer to the national norm.

From the body of the table there appears to be some correlation between test scores and college grades. The really significant feature, however, is the wide variation from such correlation. In other words, although we frequently refer to this test as a "College Aptitude Test," actually its predictive value so far as any individual student is concerned is far from reliable. Note that of 57 students ranking below the 10th percentile in test scores more than one-fourth made a C average or better in college. Of the 79 ranking between the 10th and 20th percentiles nearly one-half made better than a C average. On the other hand, of the 78 students in the upper 20th percentile 10 failed to make a C average in college and more than half failed to make a B average, which students with that high an aptitude might be expected to attain.

The following brief tables summarize and emphasize these variations. Note particularly in the last lines of Tables IIIB and IIIC that 3 per cent of those in the 90th percentile group on test scores failed to make a C average in college, and that 3 per cent of those making the very highest grades in college ranked in the lowest 30 per cent on test scores.

TABLE IIIA
SUMMARY COMPARISON OF ACE TEST SCORES AND
COLLEGE GRADE AVERAGES

Test Score Group	No. of Students	College Grade Group					
		Below 1.00		2.00 or over		4.00 or over	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Below 30 percentile...	205	69	33.7	83	40.5	9	4.4
Above 50 percentile...	251	24	9.6	193	76.9	68	27.1
Above 70 percentile...	141	8	5.7	117	83.0	52	36.9

TABLE IIIB
PERCENTAGE OF ACE GROUP
MAKING ABOVE 2.00 IN
COLLEGE

ACE Score	Per cent
0- 10	26.4
11- 20	48.2
21- 30	43.4
31- 40	52.3
41- 50	54.8
51- 60	71.6
61- 70	66.0
71- 80	77.8
81- 90	80.9
91-100	96.8

TABLE IIIC
PERCENTAGE OF COLLEGE GRADE
GROUP WITH ACE SCORE 1-30

College Group	Per cent
-2.00- -1.00	41.2
-0.99- 0.00	68.4
0.01- 1.00	57.2
1.01- 2.00	40.8
2.01- 3.00	29.3
3.01- 4.00	27.2
4.01- 5.00	12.1
5.01- 6.00	3.4

So far as group averages are concerned there is a fair degree of correlation between test scores and college grades. But the predictive value for individual students is seriously affected by several other factors which cannot be measured by any means presently available and which have a very strong bearing on success in college as measured by grades. Some of these factors are the motivation of the student, his ability (or lack of it) to adapt to the greater freedom of individual action in college, how much fortitude he has in resisting extracurricular activities and other distractions—or perhaps we should say in this latter case how much wisdom he has in determining how far he can go in such activities without endangering the primary purpose for which he came to college. For we would not deny the value of these activities when undertaken with reasonable restraint.

Co-operative English Test—Mechanics of Expression Section

Test scores in the mechanics of expression were available for 748 freshmen. These are expressed in percentile ranks based on national norms.

The most obvious feature of this table at first glance is the fact that 240 Arkansas students, almost a third of the total group for whom scores were available, rank below the 10th percentile on the national norms. Here is very striking proof of the need for the remedial work in English which the University is giving. It is even more apparent when we consider that no such distortion occurs in the ACE scores.

TABLE IV
COMPARISON OF SCORES IN MECHANICS OF EXPRESSION WITH
ENGLISH GRADES IN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Test Scores		High School English						College English							
Score Group	No. of Fresh.	0.00 to 1.99		2.00 to 3.99		4.00 to 6.00		-2.00 to -0.01		0.00 to 1.99		2.00 to 3.99		4.00 to 6.00	
Score	No.	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
0-9	240	19	24.6	111	47.9	66	27.5	28	11.7	52	21.7	109	45.4	51	21.3
10-19	86	11	12.8	50	58.1	25	29.1	4	4.7	20	23.3	36	41.9	26	30.2
20-29	80	6	7.5	29	36.3	45	56.3	8	10.0	17	21.3	41	51.3	14	17.5
30-39	84	7	8.3	29	34.5	48	57.1	7	8.3	13	15.5	40	47.6	24	28.6
40-49	55	1	1.8	14	25.5	40	72.7	2	3.6	4	7.3	31	56.4	18	32.7
50-59	51			15	29.4	36	70.6	2	3.9	6	11.8	26	51.0	17	33.3
60-69	65	2	3.1	10	15.4	53	81.5	1	1.5	3	4.6	24	36.9	37	56.9
70-79	44			3	6.8	41	93.2			1	2.3	11	25.0	32	72.7
80-89	25			2	8.0	23	92.0			2	8.0	5	20.0	18	72.0
90-99	18			1	5.6	17	94.4			1	5.6	4	22.2	13	72.2
Total	748														

There, just under 10 per cent of the total group who took the test rank below the 10th percentile, and the distribution is fairly even along the scale, although the number ranking above the 70th percentile is only 23 per cent (See Table III).

Despite the low test score of this group of 240 students, only one-fourth of them had grades below C in high school English. In college English two-thirds made grades of C or better. Almost certainly, however, all these students were in the remedial courses in English. It is a matter of speculation whether any of them, or at least how many, would have been able to make satisfactory grades if they had been placed in the regular freshman English classes. At the other end of the scale, of the 87 students who ranked above the 70th percentile in test scores, none was below C in high school English and only 4 were below C in college English. None made below a 1.00 average.

Obviously, therefore, students who rank high in this test can be expected, almost guaranteed, to do well in college English. But it is equally obvious that those who do very poorly on the test should not, on this basis, be denied a chance in college.

TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL

High schools in Arkansas are members of the North Central Association (NCA) if qualified, otherwise are rated by the State Department of Education as class A, B, or C schools. The following

table shows the high school and college attainments of students entering from the various types of schools.

In the class C group it should be noted that one small school (St.

TABLE V
COLLEGE ATTAINMENT BY TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL FROM
WHICH FRESHMEN ENTERED

Type	No. of Schools	No. of Students	H.S. Average	Coll. Average
NCA	85	606	3.73	2.41
A	75	204	4.18	2.37
B	24	46	4.59	2.44
C	8	14	4.34	1.73
All Types	192	870	3.89	2.39

Paul), 30 miles from the University, sent 6 students, of whom 5 remained to make an average of 2.68. Three of these students made a B-average (between 3.0 and 4.0). The remaining schools sent only one or two each who as a group failed to stand up in college competition, although 4 of the 9 made better than a C average (over 2.0). As far as the group averages are concerned, no distinction can be drawn between the NCA, A, and B schools.

Size of High School

Distinction was made not on the actual high school enrollment but rather on the number of freshmen sent to the University from the schools in 1956. The following table summarizes college attainment on this basis.

Some mildly significant differences show here that the students from schools sending 10-19 students and from those sending 1-4 students have definitely lower college averages than the others. The

TABLE VI
COLLEGE ATTAINMENT ON BASIS OF NUMBER OF FRESHMEN
ENTERING FROM HIGH SCHOOL

No. from Each	No. of Schools	No. of Students	H.S. Average	Coll. Average
30 & over	4	215	3.55	2.51
20-29	3	65	3.44	2.60
10-19	11	144	3.83	2.27
5- 9	22	134	4.04	2.47
1- 4	153	312	4.20	2.29

last group includes all the C schools except one noted in the section above. Even if these 7 schools are excluded, however, the group average is only 2.31. Why the students from schools sending 10-19 freshmen should have the lowest average of all does not appear. The size of the group, 144 students, is large enough for statistical purposes.

Pattern of High School Subjects

The University still requires 7 specified units for admission: 3 in English, one in social science, and 3 in mathematics and/or science of which one must be mathematics. The remaining 8 units may be in any subjects approved by an accredited high school for graduation, with some minor restrictions in certain subjects. Formerly there was a requirement of 11 "academic" units which is not now in effect. Investigation with respect to the pattern of high school subjects has been made only with respect to these items.

There were 32 students in the class admitted (conditionally) with fewer than 3 units of mathematics and science. Of these, 11 (34.4 per cent) made a C average or better. An additional 7 made from 1.00 to 1.99 which, as indicated earlier, may be considered not entirely unsatisfactory. Thus more than half of the conditioned students fall into this category. It is difficult to see the justification of this requirement or the justice of excluding students who do not meet it.

ACE test scores were available for only 15 of this group and ranged from 6 to 48. Only three ranked above the 30th percentile, all of whom made less than a C average on a year of college work. Of the remaining 12 who ranked below 30, two made better than a C average in college. Scores on the Mechanics of English test were available on all but three of this group. Eighteen ranked below the 10th percentile, but 4 of these made above a C average. One student who ranked at the very bottom in this test and also in the Reading-Comprehension test (no ACE score) made 3.52 on 33 semester hours of college work.

Some 16 mature students (over 21 years of age, or over 18 for veterans) were admitted on the basis of special tests without completion of high school requirements. In all cases the G. E. D. tests at the high school level were used as recommended in the "Tuttle" Guide. Two of these withdrew early in the first semester. The remaining 14 made a group average of 1.58, somewhat less than satis-

factory. Eight of the 14, however, made a C average or better. The remaining 6 were below 1.00. Unfortunately, ACE scores were not available on any of these students. English test scores were available for 8 of the 16. One who withdrew after three weeks ranked at the very bottom in both Reading-Comprehension and Mechanics. Seven were below the 20th percentile in Mechanics. Four of these were considerably higher in Reading-Comprehension. Curiously, one who ranked 85 in Reading-Comprehension and 39 in Mechanics made a miserable failure in one semester and then withdrew or was dropped. These results would not justify the abolition of such admission, but some refinement in the testing procedure is indicated.

There were 126 freshmen admitted with fewer than 11 academic units, ranging as low as 8. The following table compares the averages of this group with general freshman averages both in high school and in college.

TABLE VII
COMPARATIVE GRADE AVERAGES OF 126 FRESHMEN ADMITTED
WITH FEWER THAN 11 ACADEMIC UNITS

	High School		College	
	This Group	Total Class	This Group	Total Class
Academic Subjects.....	3.46	3.73	1.66	2.20
Vocational Subjects.....	4.15	4.30	2.51	2.83
Total—All Subjects.....	3.77	3.88	1.96	2.37

Again, the principal interest is not in general averages but in individuals. Of the total, 53 (42.0 per cent) made a C average or better in college and only 15 (12.0 per cent) made below 1.00. Some 35 of this group had fewer than 10 academic units. These made a general college average of 1.83; 13 (37.0 per cent) made a C average or better but the percentage of those below 1.00 went up to 34. The 5 poorest students in this group had 9 or $9\frac{1}{2}$ academic units. Two of the three with only 8 academic units made approximately a B average in college.

Scores on the ACE test were available for 71 students in this group. Admittedly the average of the percentile rank scores is not very meaningful statistically, but for comparative purposes it might be noted that the average percentile rank for all freshmen for whom scores were available was 45.4, whereas the average for this group

was 30.2. Similarly the average percentile rank for all freshmen for whom the English Mechanics scores were available was 32.2, while the average for 104 out of this particular group was 25.5. These students, who apparently shied away from the academic subjects, rank appreciably lower than their classmates on both tests. It may be fairly concluded, therefore, that this was the cause of their lower grades both in high school and college rather than any scarcity of academic subjects in their preparation.

A further study was made of the freshmen whose high school grades were below C (2.0) in English, in mathematics-science, and in both subjects.

TABLE VIII
COMPARATIVE GRADES OF FRESHMEN WHOSE HIGH SCHOOL GRADES
WERE BELOW C IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS

Below 2.0 in:	No. of Students	H.S. Averages			Coll. Averages			Over 2.0 in Coll.	
		Engl.	M-S.	Total	Engl.	M-S.	Total	No.	%
English.....	114	1.29		1.99	1.08		1.11	25	21.9
Math-Sci.....	107		1.19	2.01		0.31	1.06	23	21.5
Both.....	61	1.24	1.07	1.66	1.09	0.57	1.04	12	19.7

As before, the individual student is the point of interest rather than the group average. The showing that one-fifth of each of these groups made an entirely satisfactory college record would hardly justify any attempt at elimination of the groups on a predictive basis.

Unfortunately, on the group of 114 students below C in high school English, ACE scores were available on only 54. As would be expected, the average rank was only 30.5 as against 45.4 for the entire class. There were hardly enough scores to draw any conclusion as to the effectiveness of using a combination of English grades and ACE scores as a criterion for refusal to admit, although there is a good relationship. Of 37 in this group with ACE rank below 40, only 2 made a C average in college (scores 12 and 15). However, of 17 with scores above 40, only 5 made satisfactory college grades.

Naturally the Mechanics of English scores for this group were low with an average of 10.7 as against 30.2 for the whole class. Of 10 with ranks above 25 only two made a C average in college. One student with a rank of 60 on the Mechanics test and 90 in Reading-Comprehension failed almost completely.

In the group of 107 students below C in mathematics-science, ACE scores were available on 61 with an average of 29.6. Only 8 of these 61 made a C average in college and 5 of the 8 had scores below 40. Two were below 10 and one more below 20. Of the 8 with scores above 50, only one made a C average in college.

In the group of students below C in both English and mathematics-science, ACE scores were available on only 29. Five ranked above 50, of whom only one made a C average in college. Of the other 24, two made a C average in college (ranks 46 and 15). Only one of these students ranked above 50 in the Mechanics of English test, the same

TABLE IX
SUMMARY TABLE ON VARIATIONS IN HIGH SCHOOL
PROGRAM AND GRADES

	No. of Students	H. S. Average	College Average	Over 2.00 in Coll.	
				No.	%
Fewer than 11 academic units. . .	126	3.77	1.96	54	42.9
Fewer than 10 academic units. . .	35	3.59	1.83	13	37.1
H.S. English below 2.00.	114	1.99	1.11	25	21.9
H.S. math-sci below 2.00.	107	2.01	1.06	23	21.5
Both H.S. subjects below 2.00. . .	61	1.66	1.04	12	19.7
Conditioned in math-sci.	32	3.41	1.55	11	34.4
Admitted by special tests.	14		1.58	8	57.1
General Freshman Averages.	884	3.88	2.37	515	58.1

one who ranked 91 on the ACE test and made a college grade average of 2.53. Thirty-two ranked 10 or lower in English Mechanics, of whom two made a C average in college.

The use of these three or four factors would obviously give a somewhat better predictive measure than any one alone. However, the adoption of any reasonable critical criterion for exclusion would rule out some who do satisfactory college work and would certainly not guarantee that those admitted would be successful.

STUDENTS WHO WITHDREW DURING THE YEAR

There were 40 students who withdrew before the end of the first semester without college grades. These had a general high school group average of 3.31 as compared with 3.86 for the entire freshman class. Of these, 11 (27.5 per cent) had a high school average below 2.0. In the entire freshman class only 6.8 per cent had a high school

average below 2.0. Obviously academic difficulty was the cause of a large number of these withdrawals, although it is recognized that some other factors were also involved.

There were 105 additional students who withdrew (or were dropped) at the end of the first semester or before receiving any grades in the second semester. These had a high school group average of 3.04, with 20 (19.0 per cent) below 2.0. Their group average in college subjects was 0.57, but 26 (24.9 per cent) had an average of C or better. Nineteen (18.1 per cent) were below 1.0. There is little or no clue to an understanding of these cases in the ACE test scores (see earlier section) which were available for about half the group. Slightly over a third of these were above the 50th percentile, and two-thirds were above the 30th percentile, which we have grown to consider as indicating fair college aptitude. Twenty of those below 1.00 in college work were above the 30th percentile in the ACE score.

CONCLUSIONS

Within the scope of this study, no criteria have become evident for selective college admission which would not do injustice to an appreciable number of applicants. One of the important things in mind, though not the only one, was to discover if there might be any such criteria, in view of the much-discussed "impending tide" of students. Apparently the problem of fitting increasing numbers of students into less rapidly increasing facilities will have to be attacked from some other angle.

There is ample justification of the need for remedial work in freshman English which the University is giving. This is one of the by-products of the investigation, but a most prominent one.

There would seem to be no demonstrable difference of any moment in the preparation or ability of students coming from North Central or class A or B schools. The students from class C schools did not, as a group, show up so well. But the number was too small to be of much statistical significance.

Data on the size of high school were not very conclusive, particularly since the only criterion used was the number of freshmen sent to the University. There are some fairly good-sized schools which do not send us many students because of the close proximity of other good colleges. Such small differences in the college grade averages as do appear are not large enough to be of any real significance.

There does seem to be a definite correlation between high school and college grades. But the really significant factor is the wide variation, so that it is not possible to pick any critical point in high school grades below which it can be infallibly predicted that a student will not succeed in college. At least this is true among those who are entering the University under our present standards, which permit the admission of any graduate of an accredited high school.

In the pattern of high school subjects, it is true that all the particular groups studied had appreciably lower group averages than the entire freshman class. But the variations are so large as to preclude the use of any of these criteria for selective admissions.

The ACE test scores show much less correlation with college grades than do the high school grades. This general situation, as well as the varied attainment of the few students admitted by special tests without high school graduation, would seem to indicate the need for some refinement in the procedure for handling this special group.

How Are Colleges Rated?*

ROBERT W. McEWEN

WHAT MAKES a good college? Why is one college regarded as stronger than another? There are almost as many answers to such questions as there are people to ask them!

Much of the reputation of a college depends simply on what people think of it. Some of them are in a position to know. Deans of graduate and professional schools often keep records of students' performance, classified by the source of their bachelors' degrees. University professors have had good or ill luck with the products of various colleges as students. Scholars, lecturers, men in public life who visit many colleges form judgments based on such evidence as the calibre of the questions students ask them. And these men and women express their judgments, usually in private. But the word goes around, and is quoted.

Similarly, less academic judgment of a college is formed in the broader community. If most of the alumni of a certain college whom one happens to know are able people, above average in their professions or business life, one thinks well of their college. The late John Hancock was asked to recommend a college for a young man in his family. He had happened to hear a good bit about Hamilton. He sent for a catalogue, and recognized the names of a number of its trustees as friends or men whose names he knew. He judged the college favorably by that list, and later served as a trustee of Hamilton himself.

Similarly again, the ratio of applicants for admission to a college to the number of places in its freshman class may reflect something more than an evanescent popularity. A high ratio may indicate that people generally regard it as a good college. It may indicate that its students emit a warm glow about their college when they are home on vacation. (A Wellesley undergraduate said not long ago that Hamilton men were nauseatingly enthusiastic about their Hill.)

Such bases for judgment of an institution are not merely hearsay, may be quite valid. They lack two important factors, however. First, the reputation of an institution as judged by its friends or people

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who have known it can go out of date very quickly, in detail and as a whole. A college may be stronger or weaker than its reputation. A college president often encounters an alumnus who remembers that his instruction in some field thirty years ago was weak, and it is not always easy to persuade him that things have changed! If Hamilton is thought to have relatively high standards in its academic work, that reputation owes much to President Ferry, who was on the Hill from 1917 to 1938 and who died just a year ago this fall. It is our belief that the standards of intellectual discipline and achievement which he did so much to build are now maintained, but in detail the program of studies today is and should be different.

Secondly, the rating of a college or university on such a body of opinion is vague, does not lend itself to measurement. Occasionally some one tries to list colleges in the order of their excellence. Are there any objective, sharp, clear marks of a good college? A number of criteria can be selected, and colleges ranked by them. They are necessarily external criteria, important certainly, but statistical ranks deduced from such data may be misleading.

Ratio of faculty to students is one such. Clearly, Hamilton which has about one faculty member for each 10 or 11 students should be able to do a better job of teaching than if there were one to 20. Small classes are no doubt better than large classes in teaching certain subjects. A higher faculty-student ratio should mean more personal contact and acquaintance. As a rule of thumb, this is a good basis for judgment. But if the college is a very small one, it may require many faculty members to cover its course of study and some of the classes may even be too small for good teaching! The faculty-student contact and friendship which exist on the Hill represent the attitude of the faculty toward their work, the kind of men they are, as much as they reflect merely a particular ratio of numbers. There is clearly no magic ratio.

The quality of the faculty is another good criterion of judgment. An objective measure is the percentage of faculty members holding earned doctor's degrees. A good faculty will score high on this measure. But the completion of the doctorate certifies primarily the survival by the candidate of a rigorous intellectual discipline and the successful completion of a research task, indicating ability for further research. These are important arrows in the professor's quiver. He needs others—the ability to generalize effectively the results of his

own research and that of others, that intangible thing called the ability to teach. He must be a man of integrity, of warm and wide interests in people and events. Legend has it that some accrediting association queried St. Olaf College in Minnesota years ago. Why did it have two full professors who were not even college graduates? St. Olaf properly replied that one of them was Rolvaag the novelist and the other Christiansen who had built a choir still world-famous, and St. Olaf intended to keep them.

We at Hamilton are agreed that good teaching requires a professor to keep himself intellectually alive. That may mean published research, reading papers at professional meetings, writing articles or novels or reviews, or any other activity which makes more demands on the professor's mind than the undergraduate courses he is teaching. We have not found statistical measures of that alertness satisfactory.

The level of ability of the students of a college should be amenable to statistical analysis. The only measure we have for comparative purposes consists of scores on the aptitude tests of the College Entrance Examination Board. Each college knows how its student body compares on these standard tests with the whole mass of applicants to colleges using the examinations. It is not the custom for colleges to publish these data. A strong college may well feel that if the data were published they would discourage applications from some students whom the college would be happy to enroll. Obviously, such test scores are only one factor in the decision to admit a student, and a quite incomplete basis for judgment of the general ability of a student body.

Another important mark of a good college is a good library. The library is the laboratory for courses outside the sciences, the heart of a college as well as its treasure house. How shall we measure its function? The usual measure is the number of different books in its collection. Hamilton's 246,000 ranks us very high among small colleges. No better illustration of the absurdity of statistical attack on some kinds of problems could be found than the computation someone did a few years ago. It proved that Hamilton ranked second among American colleges in the number of library books per student! We should doubtless feel that we needed a collection of about the present size if our enrollment were half or twice its present figure.

An equally important objective measure would be the student and

faculty use of the library measured by circulation statistics. But the data are limited and not too dependable, perhaps especially our own. For we loan books to students for as long as they need them, which eliminates "renewal" figures.

One financial measure is commonly used in rating colleges—the amount of endowment per student. The private or non-tax-supported college typically asks the student to pay in tuition much less than the cost of his education. At Hamilton, the tuition fee currently represents about 52 per cent. The balance comes from endowment income and current gifts. Obviously, the endowment income is the more stable part of the fraction, and every college needs to increase its endowment in a period of inflation. On a list of 50 liberal arts colleges studied three years ago, the median endowment per student was \$4,500. Hamilton ranked thirteenth in the list at \$9,500 per student.

There is surely no more significant single financial index to the strength of a college. Yet careful studies here a few years ago showed that educational cost per student for our program of studies varies with enrollment, and will be slightly reduced as we expand our enrollment somewhat. As a dependable index to rating colleges even this figure has its limitations.

Other measures of the excellence of a college attempt to judge the outcomes, the results. What percentage of the alumni are in *Who's Who in America*? In the same list of 50 liberal arts colleges studied recently, Hamilton stood fifth. But one must quickly remember that Hamilton is a college for men, that many of the others are women's colleges or coeducational, and that relatively fewer women are listed in *Who's Who*. What percentage of the alumni who were graduated in a given period of years pursued graduate work leading to an earned doctorate or were awarded recognized graduate fellowships? A national study of all American colleges and universities a few years ago identified 50 institutions which, in a five-year period, had graduated more than 10 such scholars per thousand male graduates. Hamilton stood 39th. Any such statistical analysis of "outcomes" shows so clearly the diversity of the aims and programs of our colleges and universities. Many colleges are "terminal" for the great majority of their students. In a time when a third of our youth go on to further schooling beyond the preparatory school years that is as it should be. Some colleges clearly concentrate on the undergraduate training of the future research scholar and college teacher, and properly so.

Some, like Hamilton, know that three-fifths of their graduates will pursue further study, but are entirely happy that a major fraction of that group will go to professional schools in law, medicine, business and the like, while another fraction heads for careers in research and scholarship and teaching, and we are by no means concerned that every graduate do one or the other!

A quite different kind of rating of a college's alumni is made by studying the percentage who contribute to the support of their college, and even by the average amount of such contributions. Useful and important as all this is in dollars in the college budget, its significance in rating colleges must be judged simply as an index to alumni loyalty and confidence in the institution. If, as we immodestly believe, Hamilton alumni are thus expressing gratitude for the education they received here and belief in the importance of the contemporary version of a Hamilton education, then the fact that 56 per cent of all alumni, graduates and nongraduates alike, contributed to the support of the College last year, is a mark of strength.

I hope that these paragraphs have demonstrated the difficulty in rating colleges and made clear the reasons why no dependable official or unofficial system for such ratings exists. We at Hamilton were, of course, pleased to be ranked in the middle of a list of the ten best American colleges for men, a list compiled by the *Chicago Tribune* this year. But our reaction was by no means the complacent one that we belonged there.

In the administration of a good college, its officers should study continually every such objective basis for judgment of a college program as the ones I have discussed, to compare and contrast the rankings of the college, to evaluate their meanings in terms of the particular goals and purposes of the college they serve, to avoid seeking merely the external marks of a good college and aim at making and keeping it good, and to take all ratings with several grains of salt.

Future Professors, Coming Up!

PATRICIA KOZACIK

THE STAGGERING burden to be placed on American colleges and universities by the doubling of enrollment by 1970 has created many complex problems which demand solution if our higher education is to maintain its present standards. One such problem, causing even more concern among educators at present than the problem of physical expansion of facilities, is that of producing the nearly 200,000 more teachers required by 1970 at the college and university level, an increase of almost 100 per cent over the number now teaching.

With the demand for college teachers increasing, in somewhat the same proportion as college enrollment, the Fund for the Advancement of Education has estimated the demand for advanced teachers in 1970 at 414,000; the present demand is near 225,000. The council has also estimated a drop in the number of college teachers holding the doctoral degree from the present level of about 40 per cent to 20 per cent or less.

Will colleges and universities have to accept substandard teaching in order to get instructors? Will the quality of teaching be lowered as doctoral degrees get fewer and fewer among college and university teachers? The School of Education of Indiana University at Bloomington, Indiana, after much discussion and consideration, has answered "no" to both questions and is experimenting with a new course designed to solve the problem of quality teaching in quantity.

The new course, similar to several courses already functioning throughout the nation, combines a period of internship, or practice teaching, in university classes with a weekly seminar where theory and practice are discussed. Each student enrolling in the course assumes full duties as instructor in a course of his major study. The regular professor then becomes the student's supervisor. During his internship, the student can practice his theory in the university classroom, bringing his problems and difficulties to his supervisor, or to the seminar for more detailed discussion and suggestion.

The basic aim of the course, which is set up as an elective and given for credit, is to develop competency in teaching at the university and college level. Dr. Raymond Gibson, Professor of Education

at Indiana University, is in charge of co-ordinating the internship period and of directing the seminar. Internship, with the seminar, is planned to safeguard future teachers against possible failure, as well as to protect and improve the quality of teaching. Through the course Dr. Gibson hopes to equip each student with facilities to impart the knowledge he has gathered during study.

One of the students decided to emphasize during her period of internship in an elementary education class her special interest in human development. Following her own outline, she prepared her class for a month through discussion periods and lectures for observation in the university's laboratory school. Her students then visited several of the elementary classes in progress at the university school, and wrote papers to describe their observations. The majority of papers pointed out the specific growth patterns socially and physically in the grades, evidence that the class had understood the teacher's material and had gone into the observation with a changed viewpoint.

At present, the seven members of the course are working toward their doctoral degrees in the field of education, so are interning under professors of education. The long-range objective of the School of Education is to enroll students from other departments of the university who are planning to teach in colleges and universities—or for other departments to have similar supervised courses with complementing seminar.

The seminar is a realistic discussion group for the interns, although theoretical discussions are at times the basis for conclusions to problems. During one seminar the group discussed advancement possibilities and rank in universities and colleges. The resource man was Dr. Gibson, who has faced the ranking situation from the administration side as president of Duluth State Teachers College, and as one of the employers of educators for the U.S. government. The entire group decided, after a discussion of ethics, that it was most advantageous to every person concerned for an instructor to help a fellow teacher advance in rank and salary.

The seminar is more than a discussion group. Papers on such topics as why a specific curriculum is needed in teacher education delve into fundamental reasons for teacher training. At the end of the semester's course, the group composes a bibliography for succeeding classes of the materials they found helpful in seminar and internship.

Pupil and personal evaluation was one of the more difficult problems tackled by the group. That personal evaluation should be a continual process was the opening of the discussion. The class finally decided that the best means of evaluation was first to decide on specific objectives, and then to compare the results with the objectives. In this way when an instructor has evidence that his instruction is understood, as it was for the intern who stressed human development in her class, the instructor is a success. Thus the intangibles of teacher personality and materials need not be measured.

The next job for the seminar was to draw up a list of objectives for the student and teacher to meet. The final list emphasized the growth of the student, the learning of the student rather than the teaching of the instructor. The group also decided it was more important to teach the basics that are of importance than to give a wealth of information, only a part of which is understood. The group noted finally that learning must be logically correlated with other experiences through the teacher even in higher education so that it becomes a worthwhile pursuit for the student, instead of a hurdle or task to be overcome.

After experimenting in their classes with discussion and lecture techniques, problems of the non-participator, the word-hog, and the sleeper were discussed in the seminar. The advantages and limitations of both teaching techniques at the university level were considered.

Students enrolled in the experimental course are now required to have as a prerequisite a master's degree, plus one semester of study at Indiana University and approval of the chairman of the student's doctoral committee. A final grade for the course is given by the supervising instructor and counts toward the student's major field area.

When time next permits, Dr. Gibson hopes to have his group make specific suggestions for bettering university teaching. Some of the suggestions may be based on study, while others may be suggested topics for advanced research. In whatever way the suggestions are made, this new type of course is aimed to better college and university teaching for the future.

Some Reflections on Democracy in Administration

HAROLD FURST

IT is generally agreed that the university, above any other type of institution, lends itself most readily to democratic administration. Having reached this agreement, it is necessary to take implementing steps which involve, first, determining the meaning of democratic administration, and second, outlining the procedures which, if followed, will insure that there will be democracy in administration.

Turning first to an explanation of democratic administration we find that Tead¹ points out that democracy in administration is a dynamic, not a static concept, and that this thought is echoed by Follett, who says that consent of the governed is not an adequate expression of democracy because "mere consent, bare consent, gives us only the benefit of the ideas of those who put forward the propositions for consent; it does not give us what the others may be capable of contributing."² Implicit in this statement is the thought that contributions from all participants are not enough. The contributions must add up to a forward movement and this means that these contributions must be made within some orderly framework. On this basis, democratic administration must be thought of in terms of a co-operative and co-ordinated effort.

Within a university this is taken to mean active, but orderly, participation by the faculty in the administrative process. The emphasis here is placed upon participation, because the faculty, in the role of faculty members, is not capable of carrying the entire administrative burden by itself.

The guiding principle to be followed in establishing faculty participation is that the faculty members should serve in those areas where they are best able, by virtue of training and experience, to contribute to the institution's forward movement. The following of this principle restricts, in large measure, the faculty participation to the policy level. In keeping with sound administrative practice such par-

¹ Ordway Tead, "Democratic Leadership in Management," *Michigan Business Review*, September, 1952, p. 5.

² H. C. Metcalf, and L. Urwick, *Dynamic Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, p. 210.

ticipation should be to advise and recommend rather than to administer, and the advice and recommendations should reflect as much as possible a broad cross-section of the thinking of the faculty members. Within these restrictions it would appear that the committee system, providing, as it does, for discussion and interchange of ideas, permits the optimum basis whereby the faculty can participate in the democratic administration. There are, however, at least two major difficulties inherent in this process.

In the first place the concept of democratic administration is not one-sided. The faculty, too, must be democratically inclined. The faculty members, individually and as a body, must themselves act democratically and resist within their own ranks the growth and development of antidemocratic leadership. One observes the tendency on the part of faculty members, as with citizens in other sectors of American life, to take little active part in the selection of group leaders, thereby leaving the field open to those who advance themselves to leadership positions. Unfortunately, it is not always the democratically inclined person who pushes himself into positions of power and, therefore, without full and active faculty support, any bid by the democrats for leadership positions often falls short. It is incumbent upon the faculty to prevent such failure; otherwise a democratic context for administration cannot be provided.

Lasswell has stated, "Unless leaders with the personality formation appropriate to democracy are supported by the community, it is obvious that the equilibrium essential to sustain the democratic commonwealth cannot be maintained."³ Thus it becomes clear that any proposal for democratic administration within universities carries with it a solemn obligation for faculty members to think and act democratically as well as actively to support democratic procedures.

The second difficulty is related to the first. Assume for the moment that the university administrative officers are themselves eager to perform their administrative functions under democratic conditions and therefore have arranged for the appointment of faculty committees for the purpose of securing faculty participation in the administrative process. Will such action yield the desired objective? The answer to this question must often be given in the negative. To explore this matter a little further necessitates the asking of additional questions:

³ Harold D. Lasswell, *Power and Personality*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1948, p. 108.

Will the appointed committees have full faculty support? Within faculty groups the philosophy and motives of committee members are as important, and sometimes even more important, than the results of the committee work. Cases have been reported where sound recommendations have not been accepted by faculty groups on the basis that the motive which inspired the recommendations was not in keeping with the faculty tradition. This outlook sometimes permits the negating of sound committee work by casting aspersions on members of the committee. It is unfortunately true that it is easier to impugn the motive of individuals within idealistic groups than among the groups with a more pragmatic outlook.

This raises the further question of whether there is such a thing as a faculty point of view. All have noted the fact that even on such topics as loyalty oaths for faculty members there seems to be no single point of view. Furthermore, is it not possible for a committee appointed for the purpose of participating in the administrative process to get out of touch with the prevailing attitude of the majority of the faculty members? All have seen examples where a committee report has been presented to a faculty group and then the report has either been greatly changed in content or has been rejected altogether. Clearly, whatever the faculty view, it was unknown to that committee.

The entire question of democratic administration in universities raises many perplexing matters. Yet it is the consensus that only through participation on the part of the faculty can democratic administration be achieved. Sparling⁴ points out that the only three bases for organizing the university administration are: isolation, consultation, and participation. He, like others, rejects the isolation base and urges participation as the soundest base upon which to build. Such participation should preclude the possibility of developing major antagonisms between the faculty on the one hand and the administration on the other. The seemingly irreconcilable difficulties which have developed in past years could have been avoided through the use of the co-operative approach inasmuch as most of these difficulties have grown out of efforts to make changes. As Whitehead has pointed out, "No society or organization is adverse to change provided the initiative for that change takes place at the relative level—

⁴ E. J. Sparling, "Evaluating Some Efforts to Achieve Democracy in Administration," in *Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*, edited by Harold Benjamin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950, p. 204.

at the level where the daily activity has shown the need. Under those conditions, change will present itself not as an interruption, but as the natural flow of social living."⁵ He says further that "change to be acceptable to a group must come from within, and must appear as the visible need of its present activity."⁶ It is looking to the initiation of and the adaptation to change that faculty participation in university administration can make such a great contribution.

If the faculty participation is indeed organized through the committee system, then one further caution should be noted. The committee system, effective as it may be within the academic context, still has a major drawback. This system often does not permit the individuals most competent to make decisions actually to make them. Instead, the system sometimes substitutes a number of persons who are incapable of rendering a sound decision for one person who is so prepared. This brings to light a further incongruity. Individuals are added to university staffs because they have a special competence in a particular field; then these individuals are placed on committees operating in areas outside of their field of competence and they are expected to make, or at least recommend, wise decisions. Too often the committee system results in a group of experts in subject-matter field pooling their ignorance in areas in which they have no special training, interest, or experience, with the result that the normal administrative process is thereby delayed. This delay is sometimes rationalized on the basis that it represents "democratic administration." The further perplexing problem emerges here: at what point does democratic administration, a concept to which we all subscribe, actually work contrary to the idea of democracy by virtue of the fact that it interferes with the final process of accomplishing a particular task? An accepted axiom of democratic administration is that if democracy is to be strong and if democratic administration is to succeed, it must in fact complete the tasks at hand, plan for future activities, and take active steps toward insuring the fulfillment of those plans. If, in the process of keeping administration on a democratic level, nothing is done, then that administration is doomed to failure and the concept of democratic administration is lowered one step.

⁵ T. N. Whitehead, "Leadership Within Industrial Organizations," *Harvard Business Review*, Winter, 1936, p. 169.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 166.

Democracy in administration, which seems to be particularly practicable in a university, can be accomplished through faculty participation in setting policy and not through excessive involvement in the administrative process by members of the faculty and faculty committees, or even administrative committees. Any involvement in the administrative process should be accompanied by responsibility carrying the full accountability for the job which has been done, otherwise such involvement can actually result in a reduction in the responsibility of the administrative officer who normally is assigned the task of making the particular decision at hand. All of this adds to a negative contribution to the democratic process. There seems to be considerable evidence that university faculty committees have participated too much in the administrative process and have actually usurped authority and often assumed a decision-making role in the administration, notwithstanding the advisory character of the committee structure itself. Such action, regardless of the label under which it is undertaken, actually weakens the entire concept of democratic administration through faculty participation.

The strength of democratic administration stems from a carefully selected group of faculty representatives, who, recognizing the responsibility being thrust upon it, keeps in close touch with colleagues and works closely with the institutions' administrative officers for the purpose of helping to realize the long-run objectives of the university.

Editorial Comment

EZRA L GILLIS, January 1, 1867-September 18, 1958

If you show me a Registrar that is moved by the inspiration of his task I will show you a person to whom life is a continual holiday.

EZRA GILLIS lived these words, his own, as Registrar of the University of Kentucky and as director of activities that resulted from two "changes in position": one in 1937 at the age of 70 to Director of the Bureau of Source Materials in Higher Education (now the University and Educational Archives); the next in 1957 at the age of 90 to another area of University source materials development. He tolerated no interference with his plan never to retire to the status of "Registrar Emeritus" or to succumb to the "life-shortening routine of complaining about aches and pains."

A native of Kentucky, Ezra Gillis came to the University's teaching staff in 1907 from a successful career as a teacher in public and subscription schools. He had attended Transylvania University and had been awarded the A.B. degree by Indiana Central Teachers College.

Words of tribute and symbols of honor came to him over the years. Our Association appropriately recognized him as "Dean of Registrars" for his contribution in bringing professional status to this position. The University of Kentucky, his professional home for 51 of his 91 years, presented to him in 1945 its first Award for Meritorious Service. In 1950 he received the University's Sullivan Medallion as the Commonwealth's outstanding citizen of the year.

He served as secretary-treasurer of our Association from 1914 to 1919, and in 1920 was elected president. He attended his last meeting as an active member in 1937, but was a visitor and participant in numerous subsequent meetings. Many who participated in his institutes and training

(Continued on page 214)

courses for registrars are still active in our Association, including his daughter, Mrs. Cleo Gillis Hester of Murray State College. Four of his "boys" have served as Association presidents.

In final tribute we can say of Ezra Gillis that he lived what he taught. His words and his example inspired many to a higher purpose in life.

In the relation to others and to the objective in what we should like to have said to us when we come to the end of the journey, we find the purpose of our creation.

ROBERT E. MAHN
LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN

Read, Mark, Learn, and Inwardly Digest

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The foundation of every state is the education of its youth.
Diogenes

•

If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, it expects what never was and never will be.

Thomas Jefferson

•

He that voluntarily continues ignorance is guilty of all the crimes which ignorance produces.

Samuel Johnson

Book Reviews

W.G.B.

Faculty-Administration Relationships, Edited by Frank C. Abbott. Report of a Work Conference sponsored by the Commission on Instruction and Evaluation of the American Council on Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1958. Pp. x + 88. \$1.00.

The introductory pages of the booklet contain a foreword by Arthur S. Adams, President of the Council, which gives as the background of the conference the Commission's concern over faculty-administration relationships, and the scheduling, at the suggestion of Harold W. Stoke, of a series of discussions on the subject culminating in the conference here reported. The preface by Elmer Ellis, Chairman of the Commission, indicates that since an unhappy state of faculty-administration relations is impeding in some places intelligent solution of university problems, the conference was held and is here reported not to provide conclusions reached but to promulgate ideas regarding the problem which may be of wider interest and promote further inquiry. The introductory pages also contain a conference roster and table of contents. The conference roster includes 10 administrators (6 Presidents, 1 Associate Provost, 1 Vice-President, 1 Dean), 8 faculty (1 Emeritus), plus a high school principal, a university trustee, and an Executive Assistant of the Carnegie Corporation.

The first portion of the text of the booklet deals with the "Nature and Sources of Faculty-Administration Tensions." Here are formally presented in order: A President's Perspective by Logan Wilson (University of Texas), A Faculty View by Loren C. Petry (Professor Emeritus, Cornell); and comments on these presentations respectively by Ralph Fuchs (General Secretary, A.A.U.P.), Alan K. Campbell (Associate Professor of Political Science, Hofstra), W. Max Wise (Professor of Education, Teachers College), President Richard H. Sullivan (Reed).

The next section is entitled "Experience in Related Fields—Parallels and Differences." In order, there are presented Insights from the Behavioral Sciences by Ralph W. Tyler (Director, Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Sciences), Insights from Industrial Organization and Relations by H. J. Heneman (Cresap, McCormick and Paget), Insights from Labor Relations by Ralph N. Campbell (Professor of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell), and Insights from Public Administration by York Willbern (Professor of Political Science, and Director, Bureau of Public Administration, University of Alabama).

The concluding section of the booklet contains selections from the gen-

eral discussion and proposals for further study of the problem.

Limitations of space will not permit a systematic summary of the arguments advanced. Few readers should find any basic quarrel generally with President Wilson's points. Professor Alan Campbell rightly questions, however, his remark (re the inexperienced presidential appointee), that a professor become president changes his profession. The concerns and goals of the faculty—discovering and teaching knowledge—should be those of the president, which he should champion and support. In this light his problems are not different from those of his staff. Professor Petry finds that students (and alumni) constitute but a minor source of friction between faculty and administration and can be eliminated from discussion. Professor Wise offers here an interesting and more positive view. There is, he says, a schism in students' minds between faculty, whom they want to know, and administrators, whom they set apart as members of the managerial class; and this adversely influences relations. The organization, he suggests, of faculty-administration-student communities through schools or living units on large campuses, where firsthand mutual acquaintance can be developed, will soften the divisive forces.

Increased delegation of authority to faculty by the administration can be a key alleviant, according to Mr. Fuchs. Professor Petry would extend faculty participation in the authority sphere to representation on the governing board, too remote a body whose members unfortunately are not accustomed to sharing decision-making with subordinates. This point will surely strike a responsive chord in faculty minds.

Some excellent sidelights are thrown on the problem in the section on Experience in Related Fields. Both H. J. Heneman and Professor Ralph Campbell are quick to note the many differences in the picture in their own fields from that of *Academia*. They indicate, however, that valuable lessons for the campus organization can be drawn from business practices in budgeting, personnel administration, identification of job responsibilities and establishment of criteria against which to judge performance, with a set standard for pay and promotion; and from labor-management practices such as the labor contract (rules of the game) with its attendant grievance machinery for successful operation, prior consultation with the union on proposed significant changes, collective bargaining (in campus terms this is mutual faculty-administration respect for the role of each).

The decisive role of the department chairman in the problem at hand happily gets brief mention from Mr. Willbern and also from President Ellis. To the mind of one reader at least, this topic might have been probed more thoroughly than in the few comments in the discussion section.

Running through the whole discussion like a recurrent theme is the recognized need for better communication between administration and faculty. The importance attached to this is well taken. To be truly effective

it should, according to Messrs. Tyler and Willbern, be a two-way, "feed-back" type.

Faculty salaries, of course, receive their due share of comment as a source of friction. Professors Willbern and Alan Campbell argue that while the economic irritants are important, they are not all-important, and can be allayed through proper administrative leadership, which should stress, *inter alia*, good faculty working conditions and social relationships, opportunities for faculty distinction, the worthwhile nature of the faculty's contribution to society—its participation in a great enterprise.

This is a pithy little volume wherein much of merit is said from each end of the academic log. Certainly ideas brought forth here warrant further careful study and analysis by the academic family. Editor Abbott is to be complimented for a very full and well-organized report of this conference.

WILLIAM G. FLETCHER

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John S. Brubacher and Willis Rudy, *Higher Education in Transition—An American History: 1636-1956*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. viii + 495. \$7.50.

This new general history of higher education in the United States is one of the most significant contributions to the study of higher education in many years.

In addition to being the first serious attempt at an overview of this important area of American social and intellectual history since Thwing's fifty-two years ago, this volume has qualities which make it noteworthy in its own right. The authors have avoided the usual pitfall of preoccupations with founders, donors, buildings, and similar matters which tend to obscure the basic and significant educational aspects of college and university development. A tremendous mass of information has been successfully digested and ordered in this survey. By grouping the material according to significant developments rather than according to a strict chronological sequence, the authors show the patterns of growth with such clarity that the reader hardly realizes what a difficult task has been accomplished.

The penetrating account of the organization, administration, and especially the curriculum and teaching methods of the early colleges is a refreshing contrast to the easy and inaccurate generalizations concerning this period found in so many recent works. This book emphasizes the variety of influences at work, acknowledging the role of the Scottish Universities and the Dissenting Academies in the colonial period as well as that of the English Universities. Careful attention is also given to the development

of experimental science in the early colleges and to the various teaching methods used.

The sections on college life are well done, showing the various waves of development from the early familial, if sometimes rowdy, student life through the development of student organizations and athletics to the more recent pattern of attempts to integrate the curriculum with the extracurriculum and the development of the wide range of student personnel services offered by colleges today.

The authors' willingness to include the difficult problems of the basic issues in educational development has resulted in especially significant historical treatments of the articulation of secondary and higher education, the philosophy of liberal education, academic freedom, and a noteworthy final chapter on the distinguishing features of American higher education.

Of special interest to the readers of *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY* is the brief but comprehensive statement on the growth of the registrar's office, pp. 352-353. This passage exemplifies the authors' ability to place a significant historical fact within a larger context, in this case that of the enlarging scope of the administration of higher education, while keeping the brevity needed in a survey of so extensive a subject.

It is unfortunate that the specific treatment of the various types of professional education had to be limited to a chapter of twenty pages, but something had to be sacrificed to keep the book within manageable size. A thorough treatment of this difficult but interesting and significant area would have called for another volume of equal size. It is to be hoped that someone will do a full-dress treatment of this area sometime soon.

The volume is thoroughly documented, with all the notes at the end of the book. This makes for easier reading, but since the notes are numbered within each chapter, it would help the reader if some indication were given on each page of notes of the pages of the text to which the notes on that page refer.

Some might criticize the emphasis given to various developments, but this is a matter of opinion in many cases. Other than that, the only disturbing features of the book, to this reviewer, were a tendency to repeat some points in several places, perhaps because different chapters were written at widely different times, and a perhaps unavoidable preoccupation with a small number of institutions as the source of examples and instances of fact, thus relegating the individual schools which make up the great bulk of American colleges and universities to the anonymity of generalizations.

The book is attractively printed and bound and quite free from typographical flaws.

This book should certainly be in every college library and should be read by everyone professionally engaged in higher education as well as by all those interested in the social and cultural history of the United States.

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Edward J. Power, *A History of Catholic Higher Education in the United States*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Company, 1958. Pp. xiii + 383. \$7.00.

With all the ferment in American Catholic higher education since the end of World War II, it was inevitable that a history of its origins and operations must be written. And, since all but about a dozen Catholic institutions were founded within the last one hundred years, it could also be predicted by anyone familiar with Catholic higher education that the writing of that history would be a Gargantuan task since, in a sense, the control of these institutions is "proprietary" (i.e., under the exclusive control of a religious Community or diocese). In many colleges, the founders or those closely associated with them are still living. Too, religious organizations are like many fraternal organizations in their interest to keep the best possible face before the public. Errors of judgment, honest mistakes, personal eccentricities, etc. are matters not ordinarily aired before the public.

Despite these obstacles (to which Mr. Power does not allude) he has managed to assemble an impressive bibliography. His only mild complaint is that histories of particular institutions are often apt to be "set" pieces written for the occasion of a centennial or other celebration and therefore tending to glorify the institution while glossing over its unhappier moments.

Two striking points are made in this book. The first rather convincingly demonstrates that the origins of American Catholic higher education are parallel in most respects to the origins of other denominationally controlled higher educational institutions, as well as what are now called the secular colleges and universities. Rather than the European university tradition, with which the Catholic clergy could be expected to be conversant, founders of Catholic colleges in the United States followed the American example. "The colleges of the United States were controlled by administrators; they were administrators' colleges and their most important figure was the president." In many ways, this concept of control fitted in with ecclesiastical practice. Presidents of American Catholic institutions are appointed by

religious superiors and bishops, and the history of any Catholic college or university may be traced through its succession of presidents. Much that is irksome in the decision-making process in institutions that must operate through committees, senates, and boards of trustees is thus avoided in most Catholic institutions, but at the cost of the alternative risks—impetuosity, autocracy, naïvete, and all else inherent in one-man rule. That so many Catholic colleges and universities exist in such good academic health today is a tribute to the prudence, humility, and energetic efforts of their appointed presidents.

A second point Mr. Powers makes is the *raison d'être* of Catholic higher education. Like most early American collegiate foundations, Catholic colleges were founded primarily to give a basic educational background for future clergymen. Very early in the history of American colleges, the educational opportunity was extended to nontheological candidates, but the institutional orientation was primarily religious in motivation and only secondarily intellectual or academic. Good conduct, or the inculcation of those disciplines ordinarily associated with the concept of a "Christian gentleman," were as important—or more important—than scholastic excellence, although the latter was by no means ignored. Since the administration of Catholic men's institutions has been almost exclusively in the hands of priests, whose primary call has been to things of the moral order rather than to the academic order, the battle over the primary purpose of the Catholic college is by no means settled. As a matter of fact, the monastic rules of discipline traditionally imposed by Catholic men's boarding colleges could be found operative in some institutions until World War II.

Much of the controversy within American Catholic higher education today has its roots in this conflict over basic purpose. It is beginning to seem clear that the movement towards intellectual development and academic excellence as the primary goal of the Catholic college or university is in the ascendancy. One wonders what influence, if any, the increasing number of laymen in Catholic higher education has had in this movement to clarify the primary purpose of Catholic higher education.

Mr. Power does examine the role of the layman within the system. Historically, it has been an unhappy one: the lay teacher has been regarded as a hired hand rather than a colleague and subjected to a limitation of personal freedom almost as severe and monastic as the young men under him. On the other hand, the qualifications of the lay teacher for a collegiate post in the early days are very dubious. As Mr. Power points out, however, when the colleges began to develop professional schools and recruit professional men quite able to step out and obtain equally good or

better jobs elsewhere, the attitude towards the lay teacher had to change. Today, the lay teachers in most Catholic colleges and universities of any real stature are on a par financially, socially, and in academic background with their colleagues in other American institutions of higher learning. The degree of true academic freedom in the Catholic college or university cannot be excelled anywhere, but there are still other professional areas where progress is needed: e.g., practical encouragement to participate actively in national professional organizations, greater opportunity to participate in policy-making and administrative decisions, opportunity to participate in the selection of administrative officers under whom they work.

In the earliest days of Catholic higher education, a layman in a key office of a college or university would have been unheard of. Yet today an increasing number may be counted as deans, business managers, assistants to presidents, directors of admission, and, in a few rare instances, even president of the college. The office of registrar in Catholic institutions is often filled by a lay person and has been for years. But then, it is only in the quite recent past that the office of registrar has been considered anything more than a high-level clerkship.

The burden of Mr. Power's book is devoted to the history of Catholic men's colleges, and his chief examples are institutions established before 1875. The development of Georgetown University (the first permanent Catholic higher educational institution, established in 1786) is used effectively in charting the development of Catholic higher education throughout the nation. Yet, although three appendices list various Catholic collegiate establishments since the founding of Georgetown, there is no explanation for the rash of early foundations in the South nor for the fact that almost twenty-five colleges were established within the first five years of the current century. This reviewer also wishes that Mr. Power had been given a grant to travel to the campuses of Catholic colleges and universities throughout the country before he began his task, for although much of the history of particular institutions still remains to be put on paper, it is available in the memories of many still living on the various campuses.

The history of Catholic women's colleges has also received particularly short shrift in Mr. Power's volume. This is unfortunate, particularly in view of his own statement that "... in some respects, the women's colleges could justify their objectives, curricula, and discipline more satisfactorily than colleges for men." Again, as he did in delineating the history of male Catholic higher education in America, Mr. Power illustrates the development of women's colleges through developments within six particular institutions. Very little of the colorful personalities in Catholic higher education emerges, with the exception of Bishop Carroll, founder

of Georgetown University; nothing at all of the indomitable women who breathed life and purpose into the women's colleges. Moreover, although the founding date of every attempt at the establishment of a men's college is carefully documented in appendices A, B, and C, dates of founding are not given even for the extant women's colleges.

Appendices A, B, and C, listing the foundations of Catholic men's colleges chronologically and by states, are very helpful, particularly appendix A, which attempts to give a brief historical sketch of each founding. Relationships between unsuccessful attempts and later successful establishments, however, are not always indicated. The relationship between the unsuccessful establishment of St. Thomas College, Houston, Texas, in 1902, and the currently accredited University of St. Thomas in Houston, both established by the Basilian Fathers, is overlooked. Again, no connection is made between the short-lived St. Joseph's College founded in Burlington, Vermont, in 1884, and the successful establishment of St. Michael's College in the nearby city of Winooski, Vermont, in 1904. On the other hand, the establishment of St. Michael's College in Santa Fe, New Mexico, is given as 1859, although the institution has had several interruptions in its continuity as a college. St. Michael's (Santa Fe) was founded by the Brothers of the Christian Schools and is today a healthy collegiate institution under the auspices of the same Congregation. Yet one wonders why its date of founding is given as 1859 when, with similar conditions prevailing, the University of St. Thomas in Texas is listed according to its latest collegiate beginnings (1947) rather than its original foundation (1902). Closer investigation, the writer believes, would uncover similar connections between older and later foundations (i.e., University of Dallas, etc.).

Despite any shortcomings this volume may have, *A History of Catholic Higher Education in the United States* is a worthy contribution to the history of American higher education. There is real historical objectivity in the presentation and, although the author is clearly sympathetic towards the efforts made to establish a Roman Catholic contribution to American higher education, he pulls no punches nor attempts to make virtues of evident errors in the development of Catholic higher educational institutions. If, as Bishop Wright has suggested, Catholics owe almost as much to heretics as to the saints in the sense that they can learn to avoid the mistakes of the former while imitating the virtues of the latter, Mr. Power has provided a valuable record to guide the future development of Catholic colleges and universities in America.

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I. B. Berkson, *The Ideal and The Community: A Philosophy of Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xii + 302. \$4.50.

Professor Berkson gives us in his latest book a substantial treatise on the philosophy of education. He delivers himself of some critically positive and constructive thinking on central issues that today challenge American educators and deserve the interest and concern of the American public. Much is said and written by laymen and professionals in criticism of the present status of American education at all levels. The culprit most often cited for the allegedly low estate of American schools is progressive education. The author essays a criticism of Dewey's educational philosophy which initiated progressive practices. But Professor Berkson's analysis and consequent proposals do not to his mind constitute a total rejection by him of the experimentalist-progressivist position. He intends a forward-looking revision or reconstruction adaptable to the current American scene with its evolving challenges and present intellectual temper.

The author begins by locating his philosophy of education in the general areas of ethics and politics. An appeal to the metaphysical or to the purely biological will not, he believes, yield adequate foundations for a genuine, helpful philosophy of education. He observes that man is a creature committed by nature to community, always a definite, historical community. Man is, however, ever looking beyond the temporal present to the vision of an ideal which must solicit his best and ever-continuing efforts. Human existence is necessarily ambivalent, incorporating as it must the novelty and changes of time with the timeless stability of ideal values. The educational enterprise should essentially aim to help effect the good society in the emerging and still uncertain future before us by bringing the community ever closer to the ideal.

The book presents both a critique and some general, though positive, proposals. The critique of the Dewey-Kilpatrick theory of education is, to this reviewer's mind, incisive and competent. The experimentalist concepts of "growth," "experience," "intelligence," and "the reconstruction of experience" are considered with insight by Berkson, and are found by him to be inadequate to serve as theoretical foundations for genuine education. His is, however, a professed attempt at reconstruction and not a summary rejection of these key concepts. However, it appears that in the process of Berkson's reconstruction little is retained by him of the experimentalist position, whose major defects were, despite its intent and the avowals of its adherents, overly to stress the individual to the detriment of his role in community, and to negate or slur the traditionally valid aims and cherished ideals of the community. Berkson finds that the experimentalist preoccupation was with criticism as such and with an ever-renewed reconstruction that never terminated with a positive program of

clearly stated ideals and beliefs which could serve as determined ends for education in a democratic community.

But the genuine value of this book is not so much its critique of the experimentalist-progressivist theses, valuable as that is, as is the positive and constructive position so ably maintained by the author's wide recourse to the history of ideas and by his consideration of the truly human ideal of American democracy. The inhuman evils of communism and fascism as threats to democracy are effectively delineated in some of the outstanding pages of this book. The European debacle, Berkson notes, was, at a deeper level, owing to moral and intellectual inadequacy not unrelated to class structure. Faith and hope in the ultimate victory of the democratic way of life are well grounded on the fact that it "represents the fruit of a long historical experience, rooted in prophecy and sanctioned by enduring religious belief."

The matured reflections of Dr. Berkson on American education, based as they are on his social-historical thesis and oriented to objective values, are especially worthy of serious consideration. They relate to live contemporary issues in American educational theory and school practice. Education is defined in a practical way "as the art of bringing up a child to live the good life in society." Education, the author sagely notes, is not to be regarded as the main instrument of social reform. Nor is the school the sole and major instrument of education if the clear distinction between education and schooling is kept in mind. The family, the church, and the nation are all of prime educational significance, particularly in the moral sphere. This patent and significant fact is so often negated by those who rely upon the school for almost total formation of the child.

Perhaps one of the best chapters of his book is the thirteenth, in which the author deals with "experience, needs, and the school curriculum." Here come to a clear focus all the theoretical and practical considerations based on his social-historical thesis. An experience may be valuable or not, and mere interest is not a sole criterion of worth. It is the author's conviction that "significant education comes from outside of the individual and from products of past experience embodied in records." Hence, "books, the wide range of literature, history, and science are sources of intellectual and spiritual experience not only, as the experimentalist holds, a means for broadening and deepening the experience of everyday living." In a fervid passage the author says: "The remedy for sterile teaching is not to abandon the use of words and symbols but to make them come alive, clarifying ideas, relating them to the world of thought as well as to the world of action, stirring the minds, and let us not be backward in saying, touching

the hearts of our students." Were this remedy made effective by solicitous application in season and out, many of our educational problems would indeed be simplified.

Curriculum and methods are instrumental in bringing about the desirable changes that the educator seeks to effect in the student. Curriculum is dependent on aims, and methods on curriculum. Only after determining what he wants to teach, what beliefs to foster, what loyalties to inspire, can the educator construct a curriculum and employ an effective methodology. School learning requires drill, memorization, intellectual analysis. We should not shy from these as instruments of schooling. "The human being is an aesthetic and contemplative creature as well as an active being." Here is a direct plea for the centrality in education of the true, the good, and the beautiful. The psychologists should collaborate with teachers in determining how best to bring about genuine learning, but the author categorically asserts that there must be abandonment of the principle of "the supremacy of method."

The author offers some sage reflections on the nature and limits of academic freedom, on liberal education for democracy, and on reorientation in teacher education. Each of these important topics is dealt with consistently on the premises that there are values to cherish and truth to be sought. He eschews ethical and political neutralism. The teacher must be liberally educated, with ideas and values, not methodology, paramount in his formation. The teacher "should be led to see himself in the perspective of history as a carrier of enduring values—more, as an active co-worker with the religious leader and with the statesman in the age-long endeavor to bring about an ever more satisfactory realization of the ideal, in the life of the individual, of the nation, and of the world community."

Here is indeed a most readable and wise book, a noteworthy product of the mature thought and humane concern of its author. It is a testament for all to ponder who are seriously concerned with American education. All educational theorists and philosophers will not wholly agree with the critique or proposals or with some of the philosophical assumptions put forth. This is hardly to be expected. But there are none, I venture, who will not find themselves stirred to renewed concern to face squarely and thoughtfully the challenge that is American education today as it faces the future. This is indeed essential and recommended reading, whatever one's philosophical commitments may be.

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Fred Cole, *International Relations in Institutions of Higher Education in the South*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1958. Pp. xix + 169. \$3.00.

This volume reports the results of a study initiated in 1954 by the Southern Regional Education Board, the Southern University Conference, and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. A staff, directed by Dr. Fred Cole, Academic Vice-President of Tulane University, in 1954 sent questionnaires to 273 accredited four-year institutions of higher education in the South, and replies from 191 institutions proved usable. In addition, the survey's staff during 1954-55 visited 37 campuses in the Southern area for the purpose of conducting personal interviews and discussions. Respondents were grouped into four categories (Group I: Institutions with graduate programs leading at least to a master's degree in political science; Group II: Institutions with undergraduate majors in political science; Group III: Institutions with no undergraduate major in political science; Group IV: Technical or professional schools with no undergraduate major in political science), and the tabular reports of findings regularly distinguish among these categories. For purposes of the survey, "international relations is held to mean all studies which may lead to an understanding of contacts, connections, and intercourse between modern sovereign states." And "the core of such studies is political."

According to this study, teachers in the field of international relations in the South find the field as conceptually barren and theoretically backward as their colleagues in other regions of the United States. The lack of a national consensus on content and methodology likewise is reflected in the South, although intense methodological preoccupation was not noted in the South at the time of the survey. Again in conformity with the national pattern, international relations is perceived as closely related to political science; but "there is widespread agreement that it must be studied on an interdisciplinary basis," and students of international relations spend considerable time in courses falling within the departmental boundaries of history, economics, and other social sciences. (In fact, among courses listed by the institutions participating in the survey, "the total number of hours in European history far exceeded that in any other subject.")

The survey elicited responses from 201 institutions on the characteristics of their faculties. Most of the 1,119 persons teaching subjects relating to international relations in these institutions are in the age bracket between thirty and fifty, and more than two-thirds received academic appointments in 1940 or later. Sixty-five per cent of these teachers hold the Ph.D. degree, and about a third have been trained in the South. About half of the teachers have travelled outside the United States.

Although the utility of this survey is diminished somewhat by the lapse

of time between the gathering and publication of the data, teachers of international relations will find it possible to satisfy their curiosity in certain particulars about the status of the field in Southern institutions. They will be able to draw inferences from the list of textbooks adopted, as reported in the survey, and may find of interest "A Test of Knowledge About International Relations," developed by a committee at Tulane University in cooperation with the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey, which is reproduced in this report. The discussion of problems of academic freedom encountered in the teaching of international relations, incorporated in a chapter on the "Background of Intangibles," will attract the attention of readers with less specialized tastes.

The rationale for a regional study of the status of the teaching of international relations, I must confess, proved elusive to me. The identification of a "Southern attitude toward international affairs"—this attitude is described as one of "acknowledgment that the United States must have active and extensive dealings with foreign countries, but at no sacrifice of American interests or sovereignty"—necessarily is impressionistic, ambiguous, and of doubtful relevance to the focus of the study. The argument of the report that "the leadership of Southern Congressmen on foreign relations committees would alone justify a special interest in the activities of Southern colleges and universities in international relations" can make a claim of greater validity. But, in view of the role of the President and military and civilian bureaucrats in the definition of foreign policies, as well as the tenuous relationship between any type of college instruction and congressional behavior, even this claim must be entered with substantial reservations. Indeed, the textbooks utilized in courses on international relations bear no sectional stamp, the absence of "a clearly established pattern concerning requirements for the specialist" is not confined to the South, and the bulk of the personnel engaged in the teaching of international relations probably are guided by norms of professional behavior determined by national reference groups. There undoubtedly are educational problems which are localized in the South. But is the teaching of international relations one of them?

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John Gange, *University Research on International Affairs*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1958. Pp. xvii + 147. \$3.00.

My first reaction after reading this book is "Don't go away!" There is enough in its straightforward, unimaginative title to discourage many who

would enjoy and profit from this work. And the wise and carefully balanced conclusions presented here should be widely observed.

The title refers to International Affairs, but in fact the major part of the work deals with the problems and conditions of all research, and with the role that research does and should play in the life of all professors. Mr. Gange has taken as his major subject the "working conditions" under which research occurs in the academic environment, and what may be done to improve those conditions. As such, he is primarily interested in the interrelations of faculty and administration, and in the effect of this interplay on the outside supporters of research. What he has to say, therefore, will interest and inform every professor and every college administrator.

There are some very interesting conclusions presented. One of the best sections is an analysis of the pressures of college teaching on the opportunities for research, over the past 15 years and projected into the future. The point is strongly made that increased enrollment and a shortage of able teachers in the next few years is likely to curtail research, through a natural unwillingness on the part of college administrators to grant leaves, short or long, which interfere with teaching. "The kind of Gresham's law," he says, "which operates in this field to permit immediate, often routine, duties to drive out long-term, costly, and often tedious research, will find a fillip in the pressures which large enrollments and teacher shortages will soon produce."

On the other hand, the problem of scheduling to permit research, or even to teach more effectively, comes in for some serious scrutiny. "The truth is," says Mr. Gange, "that colleges and universities often use most inefficiently their human resources . . . as compared with what might be developed if some tough business management were applied." What may in fact come out of this attitude, he thinks, would better serve the needs of education, but not so well the needs of research. And yet, there goes along with this increased pressure, in many colleges, a pressure to do some kind of research: publish or perish! The consequence is, he finds, often merely a statistical accumulation of titles.

Two sections that will be of interest to the specialist in international affairs, and especially to the young scholar who needs guidance, offer some valuable advice on the use of interviews, questionnaires, etc. in gathering data, and on the choice of subjects for research. These sections are brief, but wise and well-balanced.

The most significant, and to me least satisfying, section of the book raises the question: What kind of research is being done in the field of international affairs? Mr. Gange's premise is that "to be reliable knowledge must be based on facts," and though he deprecates some of the consequences of this premise, he does not subject it to the rigorous analysis it

deserves. Thus, while he criticizes the kind of research that is mere fact-grubbing, and indeed alludes to the use of facts in suggesting or testing hypotheses, he does not seem to connect his hortatory attitude towards almost all research with the comments he has elsewhere to make about the enormous mass of material in which research must operate. There are, therefore, two premises to his entire thought which ought rather to be stated as fundamental questions facing us today: Is research being done by those who ought to do it, and is it always desirable that research be done? It may be sinful of me to suggest it, but I can't help thinking that sometimes we know more than we should, and know these things less completely than we should.

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Dacre Balsdon, *Oxford Life*. Fairlawn, New Jersey: Essential Books, Inc. (a division of Oxford University Press), 1958. Pp. 279. \$4.00.

"Oxford, with its pronounced Narcissus complex, adores books about itself," observes Dacre Balsdon of Exeter College, Oxford, in his recent *Oxford Life*. Mr. Balsdon's book is doubtless proving popular in Oxford. And he concludes his introduction to the volume with the admonition that a book about Oxford "should avoid being sentimental and smug. This, like all books about Oxford, is both." Useless, then, to tax Mr. Balsdon with sentimentality or smugness; fruitless to charge that his vocabulary is often a specific Oxford vocabulary from which the casual American reader may often have to infer meanings.

However obviously written for an English audience, *Oxford Life* is worth reading on many accounts. It is a pleasant compendium of information about the functioning of one of the world's few remaining predominantly "humanist Universities." To put his information into some sort of logical context, Mr. Balsdon sometimes adopts a narrative style, inventing briefly (or more probably synthesizing briefly from his personal experience) an American Rhodes Scholar entering Oxford University. But the narrative thread is so fragile as to leave doubt whether it was worth inventing, since it leads only to unfulfilled narrative expectations.

Or, again, Mr. Balsdon adopts the device of following events in Oxford University through a hypothetical academic year. This gives him opportunity to discuss the administrative functioning of the university—a nightmare of anarchy to an American university administrator, but an effective system of checks and balances in fact—and to call attention during each

segment of the year to those activities appropriate to it. This device makes possible the inclusion, in the discussion of the spring term, of a useful passage on what to do with guests who visit Oxford, with a suggested series of walks and views.

Woven into the book in historical perspective are various problems which Oxford University has faced. The American university administrator will find the volume of more interest and use for this material than for the information he might have hoped to find on admissions regulations and procedures. Thus, there is the Oxford version of the current apparent conflict of humanists and natural scientists, viewed in its context of aid from the national government to the researchers. Because the costs of research are so great, work in the sciences has had to transcend the bounds of the individual autonomous Colleges. The growth of scientific work, then, has prodded increasingly toward a centralization of authority in Oxford University. The individual Colleges normally have resisted this movement. Mr. Balsdon makes clear the implications for the University and for the Colleges of this movement, and its effect on teaching.

The growing "democratization" of the University since World War II comes in for oblique discussion, especially in the passages devoted to the operation of the awarding of scholarships. Here, also, Mr. Balsdon touches on the concomitant growth of vacation employment for undergraduates, generally a waste of time. He poses no solution, but he does state the problem.

We have been slow even to grasp that there is a problem. It is a part of the conventional American ethic that gainful employment, even at menial tasks, is a morally defensible—even desirable—use of time, especially students' time. Surely this is not true; surely, in our affluent society, the time has come to take arms against such a squandering of time of the gifted.

If the sections on rowing, tea with a tutor, the celebration of Guy Fawkes Day, the "witty" conversations of the Senior Common Room and High Table, or the inevitable anecdotes seem excessive, they serve a function in distilling a certain cachet, and in illustrating that narcissism which is, beyond any doubt, Oxford's.

All is not, however, so precious. The American student who intends to attend Oxford University will find this book of especial value. Many American Rhodes Scholars have faced the problem which Mr. Balsdon states so neatly for them: which Oxford degree will be of most value to them? Must they "do" the Ph.D. because the American system requires it, or can they afford the luxury of an education?

Perhaps one has a right to write a book about Oxford University which is sentimental and smug. To supplement his own information about Oxford, the American student who intends to go there ought also order (from

the Oxford University Press, High Street, Oxford) the published recent examinations in the field which he intends to study. These are neither smug nor sentimental.

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Myron F. Wicke, *On Teaching in a Christian College*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Educational Institutions, Board of Education, The Methodist Church, 1958. Pp. 63.

This booklet is the sixth in a series published by the Board of Education of the Methodist Church under the general title of *Studies in Christian Higher Education*. The purpose of these studies is to assist the Methodist Church to "strengthen the tie between the Church and its institutions of higher education." This latest publication stresses the importance of the college to the Church in providing cultural leadership, as well as the service that the Church can render to its colleges.

The opening chapter contains an interesting discussion of the profession of teaching, after which follow considerations of methodology, relations between students and instructors, the college community, and special responsibilities that Christian college professors bear. I found no evidence that the writer wishes the Christian college to be surrounded with an oppressive religious atmosphere, nor that he would restrict the freedom of the faculty to search, to think, and to teach.

This publication will be of interest to many who work in colleges which have close church affiliations, as well as to others of us who work in state institutions. The brief bibliography contains a score of references with useful annotations.

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In the Journals

E. T.

Saturday Review inquired of the 630 schools who shared in the \$260 million Ford Foundation grants as to how the grants had been used and their effects. A report on the 86 answers received is given by Olga Hoyt in the October 25, 1958, issue under the title "Ford's \$260,000 College Grants: What happened." The \$210 million given in endowment grants were to be invested (and bear at least 4 per cent interest) for a ten-year period, with all the annual income to be used to increase faculty salaries. The \$50 million given as accomplishment grants to 126 schools was to be used for any pressing academic requirements. More than two-thirds of the schools who replied to *Saturday Review's* inquiry had placed the endowment monies in their general endowment funds and others had invested the money in stocks and bonds as a separate endowment fund. Two of the colleges had invested part of their grants in faculty mortgages, thus providing another benefit for their faculty members. The earned income for all institutions was between 4 and a little over 5 per cent. All of the annual income was used to improve faculty salaries (this includes one school where it was used to provide a better pension program), but it had to be supplemented with other funds. About three-quarters of those receiving the accomplishment grant used it as endowment for salary increases also. It was generally true that Foundation grants stimulated increased giving by other donors, much of which was used for salary raises. In spite of the grants, many schools are finding it necessary to consider tuition changes. A number of schools were able to raise faculty salaries across the board in amounts that varied from 2 to 10 per cent, while others raised the pay levels at the different ranks. Some gave merit increases, or upgraded full professors only, as that did more toward raising the maximum salary. The Ford Foundation grants did not solve the faculty salary problems, but "for some colleges the Ford grants were a veritable life-line in time of deep crisis." Much more remains to be done in adjusting faculty salaries and it requires an "enlightened, interested, alert public." Dr. Donald H. Morrison, Provost of Dartmouth, pointed out that maximum salaries of \$25,000-\$30,000 are needed to place the professor in a relatively competitive position in relation to other learned professions. He added, "Studies demonstrate that there will not be enough new money available. . . . A considerable amount of the increase must come from more effective use of present, as well as new, resources. Significant savings could result from a general tightening up of the curriculum and careful attention to teaching methods. . . . In other occupations, increased compensation is related to increased productivity. I think that this

is also true of colleges and universities and that it must be a significant factor in the solution of the basic problem."

"Productivity" is a word that appears often in recent articles on education. To see how easily the problem can be solved when increased productivity and efficiency are given priority and the quality of the end product is considered an imponderable, turn to the article by *Fortune's* Daniel Seligman in the October 1958 issue of the magazine, "The Low Productivity of the 'Education Industry'." "Thirty years ago students were educated more 'efficiently' than they are today, i.e., each student required fewer teaching man-hours—and fewer administrative, clerical, and custodial man-hours—than he does today." Mr. Seligman continues, "In 1900 there were thirty-seven enrolled students for every teacher in the nation's elementary and high schools; today there are twenty-six for every teacher. The average school term has lengthened during this period, from 144 to 178 days. In other words teaching time per enrolled student has been rising." Mr. Seligman's comment on the use of statistics may well be kept in mind in interpreting some of his conclusions: "Whether teachers' salaries have, in fact, moved slower than other groups' earnings is a controversial question, and one to which any partisan with a reasonable grasp of statistical method can supply any answer he likes." Mr. Seligman comments, "we are far from satisfied with the teaching we get" and "we will get the teachers we want only by paying for them." But he fails to define "the teachers we want." He finds the productivity problems of the colleges more urgent than those of the lower schools, but "Luckily, there is no need to maintain present student-teacher ratios, at the college level or at any lower level." As proof that this is not necessary, Mr. Seligman draws conclusions from the experiments of the Ford Foundation Fund for the Advancement of Education. He tells of the advantages of the Hagerstown, Maryland, and the Pennsylvania State University experiments with classroom television, and recommends the widespread use of motion picture projectors. In using tape recorders for the teaching of foreign language, "the student records his own voice, then compares his performance with a native's. Thus the machines can give the children a kind of 'individual attention' they could never get from teachers." Could it be that the machines are "the teachers we want"? Mr. Seligman mentions the excellent teacher-aide program of Bay City, Michigan. But his enthusiasm for the four-quarter system leads him to say that it "would enable schools to increase their student capacities by as much as a third, without any new physical facilities." It is an efficient plant, indeed, that can operate at full capacity twelve months of the year without shutting down for repairs or allowing for extra depreciation. In discussing "Scientific programming" Mr. Seligman explains that "if a large number of students

are enrolled in both Shakespeare and advanced algebra, the courses should be available at different times." "Opportunities (for management consultants) to make the schools more efficient are almost boundless." These opportunities include "working out teacher merit-rating systems roughly comparable to those in industry," and the pooling of resources by schools near one another. Mr. Seligman concludes that "with proper use, they (technological and managerial devices) might even be instrumental in raising the quality of U. S. education."

Unfortunately most of those who read Mr. Seligman's article will not see the AAUP *Bulletin* for September 1958 in which Ernest Earnest of Temple University asks, "Must the TV Technicians Take Over the Colleges?" "The danger of educational TV is twofold. On the one hand, it may lead education into unexpected and undesirable channels; on the other, this seemingly easy solution of the teacher shortage may prevent a genuine re-examination of our system of higher education." The colleges need to overhaul their academic structure and methods because trained manpower is now being wasted and a lot of poor instruction is being provided.

Classroom TV, like the lecture system, lends itself to the acquisition of factual knowledge and thus a TV student may do as well on a test as a student from a conventional classroom, as test scores do not always show the value of the meeting of minds. The classroom should be the place for testing ideas and skills and for the interchange of ideas rather than a substitute for study. However, the real threat from TV lies in its effect upon the teacher. TV personalities, or glamor boys, would develop and they would be controlled by the technical experts in the Audio-Visual Department, who might have more to say about their promotion than the departmental chairmen. These personalities could demand higher salaries than other staff members. One man could deliver all the lectures in a large course and all students, perhaps in a dozen colleges, would get the subject from a single point of view. There would be more pressure than there is now to drop the unpopular courses that every college should offer. Staff members other than the TV personalities would become "a proletariat of section hands and paper graders."

The alternative to mass lectures or TV requires more teachers and better teaching. Many former teachers—married women and retired persons—came back to the classroom after World War II. This reservoir of qualified persons still exists. But, more important, the experienced teacher should be given the help of graduate assistants and capable secretaries. He should spend less time as a platform performer and more in supervising the work of others. If he is freed from a regular classroom routine, he could supervise the work of junior staff members and deliver a limited number of lectures. Thus the students, even the freshmen, would come in contact with the

ablest people on the faculty. Equally important would be the effect on the morale of the young teacher. Most of the time he would be in charge of a class; he would not be a mere toll taker and paper grader. This is similar to the plan in the industrial world where as a man moves up the ladder, he does less routine work for he is provided with expert assistants and secretaries. His job becomes increasingly one of planning, policy making, and supervising. At the same time, promising younger people are being trained for the supervisory posts. Unlike the TV performer, who would of necessity learn the tricks of the showman, the faculty member accustomed to meeting with his peers would know that his scholarship counted more than his profile. Mr. Earnest concludes—"The profession might become so attractive that the teacher shortage would solve itself."

In *School and Society* for September 27, 1958, Joseph R. Cammarosano and Frank A. Santopolo of Fordham University report on an experiment in "Teaching Efficiency and Class Size." The experiment was with a freshman course in Principles of Economics and sophomore courses in Introduction to American Government and Introductory Sociology. An experimental section of 60 was matched with a control section of 30 average students in each course. The conclusions were that "The Fordham project obviously does not demonstrate irrefutably that increased class size is the definitive solution for the 'bulge.' Besides its restriction to middle-range students, basic courses, social science curriculum, and dynamic teachers, the experiment suffers the inherent limitation of having been but a single trial run. The project does confirm the wisdom of systematically re-examining pedagogical assumptions. Further research for the social sciences, and similar experimentation for the humanities, could replace guesswork with knowledge in fixing optimum class size and could furnish surer orientation in meeting the new crisis of mass education."

In the same issue of *School and Society*, John F. Gummere of the William Penn Charter School in Philadelphia writes of "Productivity in Educating the Able". The public has come to understand about the "felt-need" fraud, according to which the teacher was not supposed to teach anything the student did not think he needed. Children of all ages respect the teacher who demands hard work; there is a glamor about difficulty and a satisfaction in coping with it. Lack of productivity in the educational world results from forcing the ineducable to attend school. It is wrong to call it high school education when the youth is incapable of doing academic work on that level. Dr. Gummere continues, "It is clearly the duty of the independent school, . . . to stand for a broad, cultural program. Good brains are developed, like good muscle, by rigorous training with hard taskmasters."

In the June 7, 1958 issue of *School and Society*, Kenneth Holland of the Institute of International Education tells us that we must find ways of informing all the people of "The Current Challenge of Soviet Education." Perhaps one of the basic reasons for recent Soviet progress is expressed best in Mr. Holland's quotation of the remark of a Russian teacher, "If the teacher insists on perfect work, the students will produce it." While we wouldn't want to limit our objectives and have a curriculum as narrow as that in the Soviet educational system, we should recognize that other reasons for the educational successes there can be seen in the desire of the people for education and the respect given to the educated man. We must find ways to build in all the people in this country a true respect for education and educational achievement. Incidentally, Mr. Holland reminds us that 7,000,000 Soviet students of all ages are studying English, but at most, possibly 7,000 American students are trying to learn Russian.

The same issue of *School and Society* carries "A Plea for the Uncommon Woman" by President Richard Glenn Gettell of Mount Holyoke College. We must not become so obsessed with quantitative problems in college education brought on by the age of the common man that we fail to appreciate the qualitative problems and the needs for the uncommon woman. Where a man's life may be divided into the early years of training and schooling and an adult lifetime in gainful occupation, a woman's life is more apt to be three-phased. There is a middle phase of a score of years occupied primarily by homemaking that comes between schooling and the search for a vocation or avocation. There is the problem of keeping alive the adult interests of the young wife during the years when she is all but submerged with home responsibilities. President Gettell believes "this might cause us to pay a little less attention to the factual substance of college courses, to require fewer ephemeral feats of memory in examinations, and to stress instead the practice of thoughtful discussion, independent work, and interdepartmental synthesis. Perhaps we need less emphasis on the departmental major as a stepping stone to graduate work, and more on fostering the process of learning and developing the art of thinking."

The June 1958 issue of *ETS Developments*, the newsletter of the Educational Testing Service, describes a "Lay Reader" Project which is being carried on with the aid of a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Sixteen high schools in all parts of the country will provide lay readers, usually college-educated housewives, to assist the English teachers. The high schools of Bound Brook and New Brunswick, N.J., tried out the plan last year. ETS reports that the amount of writing increased under the plan, and there have been no serious complaints.

Reported To Us

M. M. C.

On July 1, 1958, C. Zaner Leshner retired as Registrar and Director of Admissions of the University of Arizona after serving in that post for 31 years. He had been Assistant Registrar for five years before being made Registrar, so his total length of service is 36 years. Mr. Leshner now carries the title of Registrar Emeritus and will continue to serve the University on a half-time basis. He will be assigned special projects by the President of the University.

David L. Windsor succeeded Mr. Leshner as Registrar and Director of Admissions, having served on the Admissions and Records staff since the fall of 1945.

Thomas F. Richardson retired as Dean of Admissions at Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Texas, September 1, 1958. He was succeeded by Calvin A. Cumbie. Under the reorganization plan, admissions are now related directly to the Office of the Registrar following Dean Richardson's retirement. Mrs. Anna Byrd Wallace, formerly a member of the Tucson (Arizona) Public Schools, has been named Assistant Registrar for Admissions. Mrs. Wallace was at one time a member of the admissions staff at The University of Houston.

Louis Rabineau has been appointed to the newly created post of Director of Student Personnel at Pratt Institute, and will assume the direction of all student facilities at Pratt other than academic instruction. He will continue to act as Registrar and Director of Admissions, which posts he has occupied since January 1955. His new duties include supervision of student counseling, testing, health, housing, and placement services.

Emanuel Ehrlich, a former assistant to the Dean of Faculty at Pace College, has been appointed Registrar and Director of Student Personnel at Yeshiva University's Graduate School of Education. Mr. Ehrlich, who will also serve as assistant professor of education, will teach special education, guidance, and courses related to general psychology.

In July 1958 Mrs. Phyllis Gierlotka became Director of Admissions at Skidmore College.

Robert B. Shirley was appointed Director of Admissions and Robert P. Jacox Assistant Director of Admissions at Colgate University July 1, 1958.

A Workshop in Admissions, Registration, and Records was a feature of the 1958 Summer Session at the College of the Pacific, Stockton, California, July 27 through August 1. This was the fourth such Workshop sponsored by the College of the Pacific in the past ten years. It was directed, as were the other three, by Ellen L. Deering, Registrar of the College of the Pacific. The Workshop Faculty included Herman A. Spindt, Director of Admissions, University of California, current President of AACRAO; R. E. McWhinnie, Registrar, University of Wyoming, a Past President of AACRAO; and Kenneth Rowland, Dean of Student Activities, Modesto College. Special Consultants to the Workshop included Martena Tenney Sasnett, Editor, *Educational Systems of the World*; Philip C. Garlington, member of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, American Council on Education, and Director of Curriculum, San Mateo College; Irene Sepmeyer, Adviser on Foreign Student Credentials, University of California at Los Angeles; Howard Shontz, Registrar, University of California at Davis, and member of the Adequate Transcript Guide Committee of AACRAO; and W. D. Albright, Dean of Personnel, Fresno State College.

Fifty persons registered for the Workshop, representing institutions in Arizona, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas, Washington, in addition to California.

Copies of *Selected Readings in the Field of Admissions—Registration—Records*, which includes materials collected by R. E. McWhinnie and used in his class in the College of the Pacific Workshop this summer, are available at a cost of \$2.00 each; they may be procured from the Coordinator of the Workshop, Miss Ellen L. Deering, Registrar, College of the Pacific, Stockton 4, California.

Compiled in seven sections the collection of writings, ranging over the years 1913-1957, has been taken from the publications of AACRAO, representing in the main addresses presented at the annual meetings within the period indicated. Grouped conveniently together, the material served as a text in Mr. McWhinnie's Workshop class.

The seven sections include material under the following headings: History and Development; Areas of Administration; The Registrarship as a Profession; Organization and Administration of the Office; The Registrar as a Personality; The Registrar's Field of Study; Bibliography.

A program leading to the doctor's degree in Slavic Languages and Literature was started last fall by The University of Michigan Graduate School. The program stresses either Russian literature or Slavic linguistics. In addition students are required to have knowledge of the language and literature of a second Slavic people.

Master of science and doctoral programs were established in speech correction and audiology and in speech science for students whose interests are not primarily in the speech communication arts.

A doctoral program in Far Eastern studies also was authorized.

By offering a first-year program of engineering studies in Spanish, Mexico City College will inaugurate next year a plan whereby Spanish-speaking Mexican students may adjust to the North American system of university education before actually studying in the United States, perfect their knowledge of English, and lose no time in studying for their degrees in engineering. After three quarters of intensified English courses as well as technical subjects to be taught in Spanish, the students will be prepared to enter the second and third years of the engineering program at MCC, which are taught in English.

In the first *Vocational-Geographical Index* published in eight years by Marquis-Who's Who, Inc., the legal profession is the largest single category.

The general field of "business" claims 26.7 per cent of the total, but this covers manufacturing, distribution, services, and so on. None of the specific categories within business is as large as the legal profession.

Likewise, educators in *Who's Who* under specific educational headings make up 12.9 per cent of the total, with a considerable number of other academic people listed under specific technical and scientific headings. Here again, however, the broad field of education covers specific fields, such as administration, research, and actual instruction, none of which is as large individually as the legal category.

In addition to the vocational data the new survey produced, it also showed that people without some college education continue to decrease in the big red book. In the current edition there are 4,222, or 8.3 per cent, whose education did not go beyond secondary school. In Vol. 15 in 1928 the totals were 4,025, or 14.9 per cent of the 28,805 men and women listed in that volume.

The percentage of college graduates has, of course, increased substantially in the 30-year period as follows: Vol. 15, 19,874 (73.6 per cent); Vol. 30, 39,887 (79.6 per cent).

In an effort to alleviate some of the problems caused by the increase in the numbers of young people who today seek a higher education, Wellesley College, Barnard, Bryn Mawr, Mount Holyoke, Radcliffe, Smith, and Vassar have agreed on changes in consideration of applications. Beginning with the class entering in September 1959, these colleges will consider, in the fall of the senior year in high school, applications of well qualified stu-

dents. At present, such applications are judged in the spring of the following year. Students wishing to apply under this early decision plan must be certified by their schools as having filed only one application.

The plan is designed to reduce as much as possible the anxiety and tension which may exist during a student's senior year as she waits to hear whether she has been accepted for college. It also aims at reducing the burden of work for school offices and boards of admission, whose decisions are complicated by registrations from able candidates who have applied to several colleges.

The colleges announced also that the boards of admission will continue to make their decisions on the basis of the high school recommendation, the three-year high school record, and the Scholastic Aptitude and Achievement Tests taken in the junior year. Some of the candidates who do not qualify for admission at the fall meetings of the admission boards will be notified that their records may be reconsidered at the regular spring meetings, together with the records of all other applicants. Fall acceptances will be sent out on a uniform date agreed upon by the colleges. Scholarships will be assigned at the same time. Students will be expected to confirm their acceptances by a certain time by means of a substantial deposit.

The full class will never be accepted in the fall. Probably no more than 25 per cent of the Class of '63, the first to participate in the new plan, will be accepted in the fall of 1959, according to Miss Mary E. Chase, Director of Admissions at Wellesley.

In response to a growing urgency for colleges and universities to increase the attainment level in foreign languages, Chatham College has extended its requirement for graduation. All students are now required to demonstrate a reading knowledge of a foreign language equivalent to the national norm for two years of college study. The increased requirement is designed to strengthen the general education program and to improve the language preparation of students continuing to graduate schools.

If you think that college curricula are as unchanging as death and taxes, you're wrong. Both the contents and structure of college courses are continually being changed, according to two Yale educators. William C. DeVane, Dean of Yale College, and Thomas C. Mendenhall, Associate Professor of History, revealed that at Yale a Course of Study Committee, composed of twelve to fifteen faculty members, meets every other week to review aspects of the curriculum. They recommend changes, which may involve formation of new courses, or modification and even elimination of old courses. The aim of such a committee, said Dean DeVane, is to devise a program of basic studies emphasizing the flexibility and breadth of the

curriculum. He explained that "during the last 20 years or more there has been a great effort throughout the country on the part of the faculty to take a firmer grip on the curriculum, and to provide a group of core modern studies as the very necessary studies upon which the others rest."

Like other institutions of higher education, Yale tries to provide "a nice balance for the student between control and freedom," he said. A purpose of the curriculum, Dean DeVane maintained, is "to keep the student moving, never to let him cover ground that he has already covered. To keep him from being bored, we try to stretch him, and I think we're beginning to see results—freshmen taking advanced work, sophomore work, or sometimes junior work. It has been very heartening in the last few years to see the great increase in honors work that comes out of this scheme in the upperclass years."

Changes in the curriculum "keep the faculty on its toes" in addition to stimulating the students, he continued. Adding that this work "is never finished," he said that "it enables us to keep up with the changes in disciplines and the changes in emphases and new points of view."

According to Professor Mendenhall, a college curriculum must make sure that the transition from preparatory school to college is as continuing a process as possible. He explained that Yale offers four different levels of English courses, at least three levels of physics courses, and four or more in most foreign languages for entering freshmen. On the basis of the preparation he has had before entering Yale, the student selects the proper level of course for himself.

Wayne State University's Board of Governors has approved plans to stop the practice of allowing persons not fully qualified for admission to the University to enroll in regular classes, starting with the 1958-59 academic year. The plan had earlier been approved by the University Council and the Council of Deans.

In past years, the practice has been to permit adults over 20 years of age to register in classes of their own choosing without going through the admission process, providing there was room for them. These adults, classified as nonmatriculating students, have varied in number from 1,000 to 4,500 in the past 20 years.

Many of these students are fully qualified for admission, according to Winfred A. Harbison, vice-president in charge of academic administration. He said they will merely have to go through the regular admissions procedures to continue as they have been doing. Others, who cannot meet admission requirements, will be referred to the joint division of adult education of Wayne State and the University of Michigan, which will offer a full schedule of noncredit courses to meet community needs.

Wayne President Clarence B. Hilberry stated: "The time is near when we will be unable to find places for all the fully qualified students who wish to enroll. It is unsound academically to turn away students who are seeking degree work while accommodating unqualified people in our credit program."

RPI has established a four-year undergraduate curriculum leading to the degree of Bachelor of Environmental Engineering, and a series of graduate courses leading to advanced degrees. Beginning this year those CE undergraduates who have elected the Sanitary Engineering Option will be switched to the new curriculum.

The field has been developed to meet new environmental problems resulting from our spiralling population and unprecedented industrial expansion and urbanization. There are new problems of water conservation, food supply, air pollution control, and nuclear industry.

RPI also announces a grant of \$20,000 by the General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund to enable the Institute to begin revisions aimed at strengthening college physics teaching. It is estimated that the project will require three years to complete and will cost approximately \$240,000. The gift from GE will help finance the study during the first year. Rensselaer's Board of Trustees has allocated the same amount for a comparable period.

Present plans are to modernize the content and approach of the basic physics course. Classical and contemporary physics will be integrated so as to stress the unifying ideas underlying all areas of physics. The emphasis will be on depth of understanding rather than encyclopedic coverage and will employ the experimental and inductive approach far more than heretofore.

Flexible programming of courses designed to encourage the intellectually superior high school student has been developed by the University of Massachusetts. Three avenues are open for the gifted and mature high school student, who may move at the speed permitted by his own intellectual capacity both in high school and at the University:

1. Juniors in high school who have high academic standing and superior scores on the College Entrance Board examinations, and are highly recommended by their high school principals may be admitted as freshmen at the University. The maturity and social adjustment of these students will be additional important factors in their selection for admission.
2. Qualified high school seniors may take college level courses taught

in their own schools. These are courses prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board and include American history, biology, chemistry, English composition, European history, literature, French, German, Latin, Spanish, mathematics, and physics.

3. Once entering the University, the superior student may omit some basic required courses through examination and obtain credit for other courses by independent study and examination.

With financial assistance from the Fund for Adult Education, the Pennsylvania State University will conduct an extensive program of liberal education for adults throughout Pennsylvania during the next five years. The Fund has approved a grant of \$298,000 to help the University in the development of the project, which will also be supported in part through fees received from participants in the program. The project, as outlined, will develop formal and informal programs of liberal adult education throughout the State by working principally through voluntary organizations such as rural groups, labor unions, local adult education groups, women's organizations, professional and civic groups, service clubs, and industrial groups. Professional educators on the Penn State faculty will be joined on the teaching staff by lay leaders. Lawrence E. Dennis, vice president for academic affairs at the University, explains that the University has a responsibility for making available a program in liberal adult education and that such a program is vitally important to the education of the adult citizens of the Commonwealth.

Sixteen student leaders from Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America arrived in this country last August for orientation before spending a year at selected American colleges and universities. Sponsored by the United States National Student Association and financed by a Ford Foundation grant, the Foreign Student Leadership Project emphasizes development of leadership skills, professional abilities, and experience with democratic institutions among the student leaders of underdeveloped areas.

The foreign students received initial orientation at USNSA's international headquarters, 142 Mt. Auburn St., Cambridge, Massachusetts, then attended the eleventh National Student Congress, August 20 through 29, at Ohio Wesleyan University. As observers, the foreign student leaders sat in on policy-making sessions, at which representatives of USNSA's 365 member colleges discussed Federal aid to education, international student exchange, desegregation, college athletic policy, and other issues affecting students.

In September, the visiting students enrolled at colleges and universities selected on the basis of their ability to provide academic and extracurricular facilities and student and staff personnel. Particular emphasis is placed on the structure and effectiveness of the college's organization of student self-government as a model of democratically-organized institutions.

Over 1,000 of the nation's most promising college graduates are continuing their education this year at 85 U. S. and Canadian graduate schools under fellowships provided by the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation. The announcement of the graduate schools selected by the winning students was made in conjunction with the transfer of the Foundation from The University of Michigan to Princeton University.

The top ten graduate schools selected by the students and the number of fellowship winners are: Harvard University, 101; Columbia University, 88; Yale University, 85; University of California at Berkeley, 54; University of Chicago, 49; Princeton University, 46; University of Wisconsin, 38; University of Michigan, 36; Radcliffe College, 35; and Stanford University, 29. Men received 750 of the fellowships and women 330.

The Foundation's program is the largest campaign in history to recruit outstanding young men and women for college and university teaching. Each year these college graduates are offered a year of graduate training in any of the humanities or social sciences at the U. S. or Canadian graduate institution of their choice. Although the students are not obligated, it is hoped that they will go on to a college teaching career. Awards are \$1,400 in addition to tuition. Total value this year is \$2,700,000. The fellowships currently are made possible by the Ford Foundation, which granted \$24.5 million to the program last year.

Students returning to campus last fall faced the tightest economic situation in a decade, University of Michigan experts believe. College costs for students are little changed from a year ago. Average expenses for nine months range from \$1,500 to \$2,000 or more, depending on a variety of factors. How to meet these costs is the problem. The recession, which hit Michigan much harder than the nation generally, has pinched the pocket-books of many parents. Students trying to earn part or all of their expenses find jobs are scarce.

Demand for scholarships from qualified and needy students continues to outstrip the steady growth of funds for this purpose. At the same time, the number of veterans and war orphans qualified to receive government benefits ranging up to \$160 monthly is steadily declining. Requests for loans are reaching unprecedented highs.

With the declaration that "there is nothing sacred about the four years

that have been traditionally required for the A.B. in the American College," Dean Lawrence H. Chamberlain of Columbia College has revealed plans underway on a program that would encourage the superior student to move ahead in his field of special interest "just as rapidly as his abilities permit."

Columbia College is now granting up to six points of academic credit toward the A.B. degree—college credit earned not on the campus, but in high school. These credits are being awarded in recognition of the excellent teaching that is being done in some high schools and preparatory schools. Under the new policy, an advanced placement student will find it possible to take graduate level work in his senior year.

"For many years entering students have been permitted to begin their college work in foreign languages, mathematics, and the sciences at the highest level of advancement possible as indicated by placement tests administered before registration," said the report. "Columbia College has endorsed the recently established program of admission with advanced standing which permits entering freshmen who have completed college level work in high school to begin their collegiate study of such subjects at a more advanced level than the customary basic college course. In each instance, the department concerned must examine the evidence of achievement submitted by the student in order to make sure that it qualifies him for advanced work."

Dean Chamberlain stated that "for the average student, the four-year term will probably continue to make sense"; however, "for the student of superior capacity and drive, standard patterns, whether of ground to be covered or of time limitations, can only stultify when emphasis should be upon stimulation."

Central Michigan will have the nation's first combined educational-commercial television station. The Federal Communications Commission last September authorized the construction of a Channel 10 television station at Onondaga to be operated jointly on a shared-time basis by Michigan State University and Television Corporation of Michigan to begin televising on Channel 10 early in 1959. WKAR-TV, the university station which formerly operated on UHF channel 60, will broadcast on Channel 10 from 9:30 a.m. to 2 p.m. Monday through Saturday, 6 p.m. to 7:30 p.m. Monday through Friday, and from 12 noon to 4 p.m. on Sunday. The remaining broadcasting time will be used by the commercial station. Television Corporation of Michigan is associated with the Lansing Broadcasting Company which operates radio station WILS.

This sharing of time by an educational and a commercial station is expected to provide the solution to two principal problems facing each type

of operation. Every educational station, because it has no revenue from advertising, always is faced with the problem of securing adequate financial support; while the commercial broadcaster often is pressed to find sufficient time to provide public service programs on a broad scale because of the need for advertising revenue to cover high production and operating costs. The shared-time plan on Channel 10 gives both education and industry a full-time station operation for a combined service representing a greater total program availability than either could provide by itself.

Constitution of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers

ARTICLE I. NAME

The name of the organization shall be the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (hereafter referred to as the AACRAO).

ARTICLE II. PURPOSE

The purpose of this Association shall be to promote the advancement of higher education in its fullest and broadest implications.

Section 1. This organization shall aim specifically to advance and professionalize the office or offices of admissions, registration, and records as established and authorized particularly in our member institutions as well as in other institutions worthily serving the cause of higher education. Any auxiliary educational activity directed toward the attainment of this aim is within the purpose of this Association. It is not an accrediting agency.

Section 2. Among the activities accepted and understood to be within the established authority and jurisdiction of this Association for the fulfillment of these purposes and aims are the following: (a) the holding of annual conferences or conventions, (b) the publication of regular or special bulletins, (c) the promotion of affiliated associations of regional jurisdiction, (d) the sponsoring of area meetings, (e) the conducting of co-operative investigations, studies, and surveys, either on the initiative of this Association or in joint responsibility with other organizations of similar general purpose, (f) the dissemination of information on problems of common interest to its members.

ARTICLE III. MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. Membership is institutional. Any institution of higher learning in the United States officially recognized by the U. S. Office of Education, or any institution in any other country approved by the executive committee of AACRAO is eligible for membership. Each institutional membership entitles the institution to one vote, except that an institution with two individuals holding co-ordinate rank in responsibility for admissions, or registration, or records is entitled to two voting memberships. In institutions where more than two officers are responsible for these duties, each additional officer may become an associate member of the Association upon payment of a fee, be listed under the institutional membership, and receive the publications of the Association. The administrative head of the institution may designate the voting representative(s).

Section 2. Separate divisions of colleges and universities of complex organization recognized and administered as independent or semiautonomous institutions (except for restrictions imposed by law or charter) may be considered institutions within the meaning of this article, as determined by the executive committee, and each of these divisions shall be eligible to membership.

Section 3. Honorary Personal Membership. Individuals may be recommended to the executive committee for honorary personal membership by any institutional representative listed by the Association. Election to honorary personal membership will rest with the executive committee, but only those who continue in some

educational work, who are retiring from active service, who have been in the profession long enough, or who have been sufficiently active in the Association to warrant the assumption that they are interested in the Association's progress will be elected by the executive committee.

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

Section 1. The officers of the Association shall be a president, a president-elect, a vice-president in charge of professional activities, a vice-president in charge of regional associations and membership promotion, a secretary, a treasurer, an editor of *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, and two executive committee members-at-large.

Section 2. The officers named in Section 1, together with the immediate past president, shall constitute an executive committee, with power to fix the time and place of the annual meetings as provided in the bylaws, and to make necessary arrangements. The executive committee shall conduct the business of the Association in the period between the annual meetings.

Section 3. Should any annual meeting be omitted, or the time for it be changed, the time between two consecutive meetings shall be counted as one year in the administration of the Association.

ARTICLE V. AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting by a two-thirds vote of the members present and voting, provided that notice of the proposed amendment has been sent to the members at least one month in advance of the meeting. An amendment not thus proposed in advance may be adopted by a four-fifths vote of the members present and voting.

BYLAWS

ARTICLE I. FEES

Section 1. The annual institutional membership fee shall be \$25.00. For each additional membership from a member institution, the fee shall be \$10.00. Each membership fee shall include a subscription to *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY* and one copy of each of other publications of the Association.

Section 2. Any member who shall fail to pay annual dues before the close of the fiscal year will, after written reminder from the treasurer and after approval of the executive committee, be dropped from the list of members.

Section 3. A convention registration fee to be determined by the executive committee shall be paid by each active (voting) and associate member attending the convention.

Section 4. There shall be no membership or registration fee for honorary personal members. Such members shall be given complimentary subscriptions to *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*.

ARTICLE II. MEETINGS

Section 1. The Association shall hold an annual meeting in April of each year, the location and date to be chosen by the executive committee, which shall also have the power to advance, postpone, or omit an annual meeting in case of emergency.

Section 2. The geographical rotation scheme for the location of meetings, as adopted at the Atlanta convention in 1927, shall be followed; provided, however, that for good and sufficient reasons, a variation may be made in any year by action of the executive committee or by vote of the Association.

ARTICLE III. ELECTION, TERM OF OFFICE, AND DUTIES OF OFFICERS

Section 1. **PRESIDENT**—The president shall assume office after serving as president-elect. The president shall preside at all meetings of the Association at which he is present, shall act as chairman of the executive committee, and shall be in full charge of operations as well as responsible for supervision of all assigned and delegated duties.

Section 2. **PRESIDENT-ELECT**—The president-elect shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting, a majority vote of those present and voting being necessary to elect. He shall be chief assistant to the president; in charge of the annual meeting programs; liaison officer between annual meeting arrangements chairman and his committees and the executive committee. He shall become president at the end of his term as president-elect. He shall succeed to the presidency in case that office becomes vacant, and in that circumstance shall be eligible in the following year for a full term as president in the year for which originally elected.

Section 3. **VICE-PRESIDENT IN CHARGE OF PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES**—The vice-president in charge of professional activities shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting, a majority vote of those present and voting being necessary to elect. He shall be elected for a term of three years and may succeed himself for one additional term. He shall supervise any special projects referred to him by the Association; co-ordinate the Association's activities with those of other groups of individuals in educational research; collect and disseminate information concerning study projects undertaken by various individuals. Previous experience on the executive committee or on the committee on special projects (professional activities) would be regarded as an essential prerequisite for this office.

Section 4. **VICE-PRESIDENT IN CHARGE OF REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS AND MEMBERSHIP PROMOTION**—The vice-president in charge of regional associations and membership promotion shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting, a majority vote of those present and voting being necessary to elect. He shall be elected for a term of three years and may not succeed himself. He shall advise and co-ordinate the work of the regional associations, and shall be responsible for extending the membership of the Association. Together with the president and the treasurer, he shall in doubtful cases determine eligibility for membership in the Association.

Section 5. **SECRETARY**—The secretary shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting, a majority vote of those present and voting being necessary to elect. He shall be elected for a term of three years and may not succeed himself. He shall be the custodian of the secretarial records of the Association and shall keep a cumulative index of the proceedings. He shall keep the minutes of the annual meeting and of the meetings of the executive committee.

Section 6. **TREASURER**—The treasurer shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting, a majority vote of those present and voting being necessary to elect. He shall be elected for a term of three years and may succeed himself for one additional term. In addition to the usual duties of the office, he shall keep an accurate list of the members of the Association and collect the membership dues; bear sole responsibility for membership records and annual membership reports; and report changes in the membership list to the president, the vice-president in charge of regional associations and membership promotion, and editor. He shall secure the approval of the president on all bills before payment. He shall prepare informal financial statements for meetings of the executive committee. At the close of the fiscal year, he shall make a complete financial report, audited by a certified public accountant, to be presented to the executive committee for publication in the next issue of *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*. The treasurer shall be bonded in an amount decided by the executive committee.

Section 7. EDITOR—The editor of COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY shall be appointed by and responsible to the executive committee for a three-year term. He is eligible for reappointment. He shall edit, publish, and distribute COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY.

Section 8. EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEMBERS-AT-LARGE—Two members-at-large (one to be elected each year) shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting, a majority vote of those present and voting being necessary to elect. They shall serve on the executive committee for a term of two years, and may not succeed themselves. They shall perform such duties as shall be assigned to them by the president.

Section 9. With the exception of the treasurer, the elected officers shall hold office from the adjournment of the meeting at which they are elected until the adjournment of the meeting at which their successors are elected. The treasurer shall hold office from the beginning of the fiscal year following his election until the close of the fiscal year in which his successor is elected. The editor shall begin his term of office with the Autumn issue of COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY and shall hold office until his successor is named.

Section 10. The executive committee shall have authority between annual meetings to fill any vacancy not otherwise provided for.

ARTICLE IV. REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Section 1. The Association shall encourage the formation of regional associations, each with the right (a) to determine its own constitution in accordance with local needs but in every respect consistent with the constitution of the AACRAO; (b) to determine its own boundary lines with due consideration for those of existing regional associations, and to determine its own membership of collegiate institutions or the appropriate officers thereof; (c) to elect its own officers, to conduct its meetings according to regional interests and needs, and to determine its membership fees, number of meetings, etc., except as hereinafter provided.

Section 2. Regional associations are regarded as affiliated with the AACRAO and are encouraged to submit to the editor for publication in COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY, subject to his approval, the programs and proceedings of annual meetings and such papers, studies, or projects as will be of general interest.

ARTICLE V. COMMITTEES

Section 1. The following standing committees, with the exception of the committee on nominations and elections, shall be appointed by the president with the approval of the executive committee. Unless otherwise specified, the members of the standing committees shall serve for a period of one year, but may be reappointed for one or two additional terms. To insure continuity, not fewer than half of the incoming committee must be appointed from the outgoing committee. The committee members shall perform such duties as may be delegated to them by the president.

- I. ORGANIZATION (reporting to the executive committee through the president)
 1. Evaluation
 2. Constitution
- II. OPERATIONS (reporting to the executive committee through the president)
 1. Budget (past president, chairman, the president, the president-elect, and the treasurer)
 2. Public Relations
 3. Honorary membership (Association secretary as chairman)
 4. Resolutions
 5. Placement
 6. Nominations and elections (elected by voting membership)

III. PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES (reporting to the executive committee through the vice-president in charge of professional activities)

1. Steering Committee (vice-president in charge of professional activities, chairman)
2. Special publications (vice-president in charge of professional activities and editor of COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY as members, plus one appointed member as chairman)

Ad hoc committees may be authorized and appointed by the president and the executive committee on recommendations of the steering committee.

IV. ANNUAL MEETING PROGRAM (reporting to the executive committee through the president-elect)

1. Local arrangements (with as many subcommittees as needed)

Section 2. ACE DELEGATES—The president and not more than five delegates appointed by the executive committee shall serve as liaison representatives with the American Council on Education.

Section 3. COUNCIL OF REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS—The council shall be composed of one representative from each recognized regional association, chosen by the region represented. The vice-president in charge of regional associations and membership promotion shall serve as chairman of the council. The chairman of the committee on public relations shall be ex officio a member.

Section 4. Nothing in this article shall be construed as preventing the appointment of additional standing or special committees deemed necessary for the work of the Association.

Section 5. The editorial staff of COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY shall consist of the editor and six or more associate editors appointed annually by the editor. The number of associate editors shall be fixed from time to time by the executive committee upon recommendation of the editor. The editor shall be responsible for the distribution of work among the associate editors.

Section 6. The president shall be ex officio a member of all committees except the committee on nominations and elections.

ARTICLE VI. ROTATION OF TERMS

Section 1. The principle of rotation is deemed desirable with regard both to terms of office and membership of committees.

Section 2. THE COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS AND ELECTIONS—The committee on nominations and elections shall consist of seven members and two alternates, to be elected as follows:

The slate will consist of ten nominees. Each voter will vote for the five nominees of his choice. The two with the highest number of votes will be elected for a two-year term, and the next three for a one-year term; and the next two highest will be elected as alternates. The committee on nominations and elections will nominate the officers for the following year and will also nominate the candidates for the new committee on nominations and elections. The committee shall report to the Association on the second day of the annual meeting. At this time, opportunity shall be given for additional nominations from the floor. The convener of each newly elected committee on nominations and elections will be the retiring past president and he shall call the committee together for the election of a chairman, before the adjournment of the annual meeting at which their election is announced. No member of the committee on nominations and elections may succeed himself.

Section 3. The election of the members of the committee on nominations and elections shall be by mail ballot, to be conducted by the committee on nominations and elections (except during the first year when the executive committee shall con-

duct the election in May, 1956), such ballot to be sent in the month of February to all voting members in good standing. A deadline for returns shall be thirty days after the date the ballots are mailed. No ballot postmarked after that time may be counted.

ARTICLE VII. FISCAL YEAR

The fiscal year of the Association shall extend from June 1 to May 31.

ARTICLE VIII. AMENDMENTS

These bylaws may be amended at any annual meeting by a majority vote of the members present and voting, provided that notice of the proposed amendment has been sent to the members at least one month in advance of the meeting. An amendment not thus proposed in advance may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the members present and voting.